PEACE FLOURISHES WHERE REASON RULES.

THE
FAMILY ECONOMIST;

A Penny Monthly Magazine

FOR THE INDUSTRIOUS CLASSES.

BRAVE ACTIONS ARE THE SUBSTANCE OF LIFE, AND GOOD SAYINGS THE ORNAMENT OF IT.

BY GOOD NATURE HALF THE MISERY OF HUMAN LIFE MIGHT BE ASSUAGED.

VOL. III.
1850.

The Cottage Homes of England !
  By thousands on her plains,
They are smiling o'er the silvery brook,
  And round the hamlet fanes :
From glowing orchards forth they peep,
  Each from its nook of leaves ;
And fearless there the lowly sleep,
  As the bird beneath their eaves.

The free fair homes of England !
  Long, long in hut and hall !
May hearts of native proof be reared
  To guard each hallowed wall.
And green for ever be the groves,
  And bright the flowery sod,
Where first the child's glad spirit loves
  Its country and its God.

LONDON:
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AND SOLD BY ALL BOOKSELLERS.

PRIDE IS THE EFFECT OF SELF-IGNORANCE.

MOTTOES

PRINTED ON THE COVERS OF THE FAMILY ECONOMIST IN 1850.

HANDSOME is who handsome does.

Modesty is the handmaid of virtue.

Neither praise nor dispraise thyself; thine actions serve the turn.

Tell me the company you keep and I will tell you your character.

A quiet conscience sleeps during thunder.

One never loses by doing a good turn.

An hour in the morning is worth two in the afternoon.

All things are soon prepared in a well ordered house.

Better to do it than wish it done.

Manner often maketh fortune.

It costs more to revenge injuries than to bear them.

He who will not be counselled cannot be helped.

An evil lesson is soon learned.

Better to be alone than in bad company.

Great gain and little pain make a man soon weary.

Patience is a flower that grows not in every one's garden.

Great talkers are small workers.

Business first and pleasure afterwards.

In all labour there is profit.

Talk of the lips tendeth only to poverty.

Knowledge is the food of the soul.

Wisdom is knowledge put in practice.

Excellence in any calling is the result only of application and industry.

Many a born genius dies a fool.

He who has no shame hath no conscience.

The ass that carries wine drinks water.

Envy shoots at others and wounds herself.

An inquisitive fellow is a spy in disguise.

Entertain no thoughts that you would blush at in words.

Great talkers are like broken pitchers; every thing runs out of them.

Books of the right kind are most entertaining and improving companions.

Reading bad books is as hurtful as keeping bad company.

Reading makes a full man, conversation a ready man, and writing a correct man.

An uncultivated mind is like a neglected garden—full of weeds.

A distaste for poetry indicates an inferior order of intellect.

Religion does not forbid, but encourages, the highest cultivation of which the human mind and heart are susceptible.

A taste for the beautiful, both in nature and art, ought to form a part of general education.

A mere matter of fact man is not generally the most pleasing companion, nor always the most useful citizen.

Sweet mercy is nobility's true badge.

Never accustom those who love you to do without you.

Unemployed time is the greatest burden to an industrious man.

Who feels love in his heart feels a spur in his limbs.

A heart that is a stranger to love is a stranger to happiness.

Cruelty is the vice of an ignoble nature.

Cultivate love in your heart and in your family as the choicest flower of your garden.

Never refuse to do a good turn—you may need one yourself sometime.

Art is acquired by great labour and industry.

Caution and care baffle many a snare.

Nothing is too difficult for diligence to overcome.

Heaven helps those who help themselves.

Envy no man his good estate.

Be thankful: who has not some cause for gratitude?

It is a long lane that has no turn.

He who loses wealth loses much; he who loses a friend loses more; but he that loses his spirits loses all.

Indolence is the real hereditary sin of human nature.

Frugality is the best fuel of hospitality.

Sensual enjoyment when it becomes habitual loses its relish and is converted into a burden.

That man cannot fail to be ridiculous who follows implicitly every advice that is given him.

To punish in wrath is generally followed by bitter repentance.

Affected gravity is the very essence of imposture.

The wise man knows and inquires: the ignorant does not know what to inquire about.

Beauty and wit may gain us admirers, but goodness alone will acquire us true friends.

The greatest of all faults is to believe that we have none.

Think like the wise, but talk like ordinary people.

Attempt not two things at once, for the one will hinder the other.

Every man committing a trespass is the prisoner of justice as soon as he has done it.

Bestir yourself while young; you will want rest when old.

He overcometh a stout enemy, that overcometh his own anger.

Haste is but a poor apology; take time and do your business well.

Every man ought to aim at eminence, not by putting others down, but by raising himself.

A gentle disposition is an unruffled stream.

Pride like a wild horse overthrows its rider.

Cruelty to a female is the crime of a monster.

In good fortune be moderate, in bad prudent.

Be always at leisure to do good.

Content is the true philosopher's stone.

Constant occupation prevents temptation.

Report not among strangers what you hear among friends.

Doing nothing is doing ill.

Diet cures more than the doctor.

Drive thy business, or thy business will drive thee.

Distress and difficulty are often the spurs of diligence.

Calculate well before you resolve.

Do what you ought, come what may.

Constant application overcomes the greatest difficulties.

Sin, like a disease, is often caught by infection.

The noblest remedy for injuries is oblivion.

Truth is the basis of all excellence.

Truth and honesty have no need of loud protestations.

The credit that is got by a lie only lasts till the truth comes out.

The golden age never was the present age.

That which opposes right must be wrong.

Tell me with whom thou goest and I'll tell thee what thou doest.

That which is bitter to endure may be sweet to remember.

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A HAPPY NEW YEAR!

How many times these friendly words will be spoken on this first of January, eighteen hundred and fifty. In numberless instances they will convey the sincere wish of the heart, and strengthen the sentiment of love or friendship. Even those who are widely separated will at this commencement of another period of time wish for each other *A Happy New Year.*

There would be great satisfaction in believing that in every case the utterance were sincere, that each tongue spoke the true and honest desire of the heart. But with too many persons the wishing of *A Happy New Year* is a mere matter of form.

Now, will any one who reads this explain to us why a formal compliment should take the place of a heart-felt sentiment? Perhaps we shall be told that every one means well, or fancies he does. The best answer to this would be the inquiry—'Do you mean well? What is your intention in wishing *A Happy New Year* for your friends or neighbours?'

Here an anecdote occurs to us which may serve to explain our meaning:—A traveller was once riding along a road in Canada, when his horse fell suddenly down and died. While he yet stood bewailing his misfortune, several other travellers came up, who all stopped at sight of the dead animal and dismounted rider. They gathered round the poor man, and having inquired into the particulars of the accident, said they were very sorry, and hoped he would not lay it too much to heart. The owner of the dead horse proceeded to unstrap the saddle and bridle, and did not appear to be much the better for the sorrow expressed by the bystanders. While he was thus engaged, one of the party, a Frenchman, said to the others, 'Dat is very well, you be sorry; I sorry too, but dat no get de poor man anoder horse; so me be sorry five dollars.' On saying this, the worthy foreigner drew a five-dollar bank note from his pocket, and gave it to the unfortunate stranger. After such an example, the others did not like to refuse, and so among them they raised money enough to buy another horse, which enabled the traveller to continue his journey.

This was practical sorrow. The best sort of sympathy is that which removes or seeks to remove the cause of suffering. Kind words are not to be slighted, but we ought not to let them take the place of kind actions.

Now the Frenchman proved that he knew there should be *doing* as well as *saying;* and all persons may act on the same principle if they will. If others wish for you, or you wish for others a happy new year, do your best to make it so. The wish must come from the heart, not merely from the tongue. What is it you are wishing for?—HAPPINESS. A high aim truly! It is that for which all the world is striving in some shape or other. But why do so many fail of attaining it? Because they do not seek for it in the right way. They are sorry the horse is dead; but they make no attempt towards getting another.

Are you a parent, and do you wish for your children a happy new year? Endeavour to make them happy. Gain their confidence, and you will win their love; and then they will look forward to your smile and approbation as their chief pleasure. If they observe that you desire their welfare as well as your own, they will learn that selfishness is not the chief good. Then indeed will it be a happy new year.

Husbands and Wives. Of course you have wished each other a happy new year. Do you really mean what you say? Do you still remember the day when you took each other by the hand, with a promise of mutual love until death should part you? Have you tried to make life as pleasant as it then appeared in prospect? If not, begin at once. If there is any thing in your temper or general conduct which causes pain, reform it forthwith; learn to bear and forbear; then, indeed, will it be a happy new year.

Sons and Daughters, Brothers and Sisters. A happy new year to you all, and many of them; but you must not expect them to come just for a wish. You must be willing to exercise a little self-denial; to manifest your love for your parents by cheerful obedience, and for one another by avoiding all causes of envy and strife. The sea of life stretches far before you: would you like a pleasant voyage, or a stormy one? Of course you will say pleasant. Very well: kindness and good conduct on your part will always bring a fair wind; then, indeed, will yours be a happy new year.

Friends and Relatives. Are you in earnest in wishing one another a happy new year, or have you only passed the words on from mouth to mouth because it is the custom to do so? A sound heart is better than a hollow custom; and it will be well worth your while to sit down and ask yourselves what you really did mean as you went on wishing from right to left. It gives us pleasure to know that in many cases you will find a true feeling of affection or kindness has been at work; but on the other hand, how many wishes will be as the travellers' sorrow for the dead horse, which at first was only words. There is a spirit of kindness in all of you, we are sure there is; and if you will only cultivate it from good to better, and from better to best, then, indeed, yours will be a happy new year.

Master and Man, Mistress and Servant. If you have not already wished each other a happy new year, we recommend your doing so without further delay. Who knows what good may come of it? Perhaps there are misunderstandings between you? Possibly you have not taken pains to become properly acquainted with each other? Oppression begets hatred: severity begets cunning: suspicion begets fraud. If you have not thought of these matters before, it is not too late to begin now. Consideration will teach you that your interests are mutual: if the man is to thrive, the master must prosper: if the mistress is to be well-served, the servant must be careful. Let only these points receive due attention, then, indeed, yours will be a happy new year.

Readers of the *Family Economist:* We should like to offer a proposition: Faults of temper, character, or conduct—vices, large or small—besetting sins, public or private, ought to be at once uprooted and cleared away never to grow again. If all who read these pages will make the attempt trustfully and hopefully, they will be able to say with every first of January they may be permitted to see—This is indeed A HAPPY NEW YEAR!

A GRANDFATHER'S TALE, FOR THE NEW YEAR.

THERE was a blithe party one Christmas time at Mr. Rysdale's, farmer in Beechwood. Besides Mr. and Mrs. Rysdale, and their eight children, half of whom had already grown to be men and women, there were strings of cousins, uncles, and aunts, and a host of neighbours and friends—a Christmas party, and a merry one. The log blazed high in the old-fashioned chimney, and shed its rays over joyous faces. This one sang—that one proposed riddles—here was a joker—there a story-teller.

Old grandfather Rysdale was a merry, hale old man. He was sage with the grown-up people, full of saws and illustrative anecdotes ; but a very child with his grandchildren. That merry old eye of his perceived much, though it might not appear to do so, which escaped ordinary observers. He saw that Emily Rysdale was fast yielding her heart to George Redfern. The old man knew that George was a careless, though a handsome youth ; that he was heartless, though he appeared to some people to be 'all heart.' The old man had reason to know too that George was idly inclined, and had already given his father much trouble.

Every one had done his part. All were in good-humour ; when at a pause, everybody cried, 'Grandfather must tell another story.'

'Glad or sad, then ?' asked the old man.

The 'glads' seemed to have it.

'My story,' said the patriarch, 'will be glad and sad—sad and glad : it will be like life—have shine and shadow, joys and sorrows, smiles and tears.'

'All of you,' he began, 'know Langley-Moor farm—"Langley," as we call it for shortness ; but none of you, perhaps, but myself, may remember when old Job Perkins lived there. Sixty years ago, well-nigh, Job and his wife, his son and daughter, lived there. Job was a decent old man as ever lived, and though "times," according to all accounts, were not much better then, than now—that is, they were good only to the industrious—Job had scraped together a good deal of money for one in his walk of life. The son, who was named Oliver, was a clever youth, with a good head. He grew to manhood's estate, without being chargeable of any misbehaviour. But he was led away in such a manner as I, in my time, have known many young men to be. There came to this part a son of the squire's, that lived in Croft-House then. That young man did a deal of ill in this part of the country. He had been in the army ; he had lived a good deal in London, and in foreign parts. Places will not make people bad, if they be not inclined that way. However, this young squire did not think himself too good company for his tenants or his tenants' sons : some of them thought that there never had, been such a fine, frank gentleman as he and deemed themselves highly honoured by his condescension. He taught them to play—to drink—to spend their lives in idleness and riot ; and Oliver Perkins became one of his companions.

'Isabella was younger than her brother by a few years. She was such another as Emily there. (Here Emily turned down her eyes, which had been gazing up in her grandfather's face, regardful of his every word.) A sweet pretty young thing she was—a good creature. And young Welwood, a son of the old Welwood, who at that time held the Grange farm, was as fine a youth as she a girl. Robert Welwood had known Isabella from childhood. He had carried her backwards and forwards to school.

'Robert was out late one frosty night in November, looking after his father's carts ; the hard-frozen snow lay on the ground, when he sprained his ankle, as he thought, in a rut in the road. Domestic remedies were applied for some days, but his limb became worse. The doctor was sent for, and attended for a length of time, but Robert never walked again as before : he had ever after a lame foot. This did not prevent his feelings towards Isabella, whom he had been fond of from her infancy. He had been her protector ; but now that she had altered her character and grown a woman, he aspired to be her lover.

'Isabella *liked* him too—liked him, respected him. She had never thought of him but as a friend. He was older than she, and his head was still older than his shoulders: he was naturally sedate and shy, and his shyness and gravity had been increased by the accident of his lameness. She had never thought of him as an admirer, even while he was doting on her. Who knows, however, how soon her eyes might have been opened, had not her brother, just as Isabella's sense and judgment were *forming* in her, been in the habit of bringing Jack Raffles to the house. Jack was handsome, and had a beguiling tongue.

'Oliver Perkins died. He died of a disease which doctors call *delirium tremens.* In plain English, he died of intemperance in the use of ardent spirits. Old Perkins and his wife were already heart-broken with Oliver's recent courses, and the death of their only son put, they imagined, the top-stone on their griefs. Alas! we know not what we have to bear till it comes, nor how we can bear it till tried. Poor Isabella's affectionate heart was torn with grief. The whole winter passed, and her health was still affected by her sorrow. Robert Welwood had been a frequent guest after Oliver's death. He found there was cause, after all, to suspect the success of his rival. He had hoped—as much for his dear Isabella's sake as his own—that she had not thrown away her heart on one he knew to be worthless. His suspicions were well grounded. Her heart was pre-occupied: and Isabella felt that to love Robert would be to be guilty of inconstancy.

'Spring passed, and summer, and when she was able to re-appear like her old self, John Raffles' visits became again more frequent. These were discountenanced by her father and mother, and I grieve to say that she sometimes saw him privately. I believe she had never disobeyed them in any other matter. "They love me," she would say to herself, "and dearly I love them. Oh! I wish they would but see as I do. They have not young hearts, and know not how *I* feel!"

'Ah, Isabella, their sense and experience, and their love for you, made them think as they did. The odious fact was, that this Raffles had trifled with Isabella's affections, and had gained them *before* her brother's death, but all to gratify his own heartless vanity. It was not till *after* she had lost her brother, and become the inheritor of all the savings and worldly goods of old Job Perkins, that Raffles had seriously thought of winning her hand.

'You would not have thought it of her, notwithstanding what I have already said, my dears,' exclaimed the grandfather, looking round on the young people, 'you would not have thought, I say, that her undutifulness would have reached the pitch it did—that she would have run away with Jack Raffles. But I regret to say she did. Conscience makes us cowards. What people call love, or mistake for proper love, often makes us fools. She ran away—Isabella ran away!

'Well, after a time, old Mr. Perkins took Jack and Isabella home. For what was to be done? She was their only child. Hers was a great fault, but her only one. Her parents' grand objection to the match had been, that it was one which would bring misery with it. Now that the marriage had taken place, and could not be revoked, would it be consistent in them to increase her misery by casting her off? No! nature cried out that it was their duty to endeavour to lighten it. Jack's father was a yeoman, but he had other sons. Isabella returned to her father's and her mother's embraces, and they made up their minds to do *their* best to make something of the son-in-law, who had become one against their will.

'Alack, alack! mere wishes and good resolutions of one's own, and the endeavours of others cannot and will not alter a human nature. I don't know that John's resolutions to do his best were ever very firmly rooted in his mind. Certain it is, if they were rooted at all, that they were never acted on, that they never produced any good fruit. The old people moralized—and Isabella wasted tears, but John was late at fairs and markets, he was often away at races, and cock-fights, and card-parties. He generally returned home in a state of intoxication. Vices he had managed to conceal from the blinded eyes of Isabella before marriage, he now took small pains to conceal. Perkins found his son-in-law, instead of an assistance, a hindrance and encumbrance. John too, in his character of partner, assistant, and successor of the old man gained the power of contracting debts which must either be paid out of the old man's exchequer, or bring them all into disgrace and trouble.

'I need not enlarge on the sorrows and

vexations of the Perkinses. Isabella's love was strong and steadfast: but it was sorely, sorely tried. She had a child. She loved it so much, Ah! so very, very much, that she could not long bear anger towards the father whom it so much resembled.

'Old Mrs. Perkins, died in the third year after the marriage, her natural span of life I have no doubt being curtailed by her grief and her troubles. Job, left alone without his life's companion, pent up in the same domicile with a son-in-law whom he disliked, who he saw was scattering already what he had stored—Job pined, and, in about a year after his wife's death, was laid by her side.

'The rest is soon told. When John Raffles was left master, a wretched management he made of it. He was more frequently to be found carousing with boon companions than minding his farm. Isabella prayed and did her best. Poor Isabella! One night he was thrown out of his gig on his way home from some card-playing meeting, and while in a state of drunkenness was killed on the spot. He was found to be insolvent at the time of his death. His wife had to turn her back on the farm, and on the dear old house, where she had been reared and brought up in simple plenty, with her child in her arms, without goods or furniture, almost without clothes!

The grandfather paused. Pearly drops were trickling down not a few upturned faces.

'But,' cried little Sophy Grindlay, a pretty blue-eyed girl of ten years old, 'you were to make it *sad and glad;* now it's all sad—isn't it all *very* sad?' said she, looking round appealingly to her cousins, with the mark of a tear's current down each of her cheeks.

'Glad and sad,' said the old man, 'sad and glad as life is; joys and sorrows; showers and sunshine; smiles and tears. There is a little more of the sad yet, Sophy, my dear.

'Poor Isabella,' then continued he, 'rented the end of a cottage, and tried to support herself and child by needlework, or whatever she could find to do. But first, she could not always get work; second, when she got it, she earned but a wretched pittance by it, as she had not been used to it; and third, people who have been used to plenty do not know how to accommodate themselves to penury—do not know how to economise, and where to begin. Her child took measles, and not being so well clothed, or having been so well fed as it used to be, an inflammation sprang up after that complaint, of which it died. Work was thrown aside, when her dear child was ill. Her infant was all her work, and all her care from morning till night. A little time, after its death, in the midst of her grief, the idea occurred to her mind that now she was worse than poor, that she was in debt—debt to every one who had supplied her with necessaries for that dear one; in debt even for the coffin which held its remains!

'She felt utterly desolate, forlorn, and miserable. She wept again. She sobbed. She tired of weeping, and sat gazing at the embers of burnt sticks in her miserable fire-place. Her brain reeled. She thought she might go mad. She feared she might—when hark! some one taps at the door.

'Mechanically she cried, "Come in," thinking it her neighbour from the other end of the cottage. She heard a man's foot on the floor, and raised her head from between her hands. It was Robert Welwood.

'"I have but this day, Isabella," said he, "heard of your distresses, and have come to try and help you a bit, for the sake of old times." He was now in a farm of his own, about fifteen miles off.

'"Ah! Robert," she exclaimed, grasping his arm in both her hands, "you have saved me. God has raised me up a friend, when I thought I was without one in the world. Oh! Robert, you have done me good—you have done me good—you have saved me." She laughed; she cried; she went into fits.

'Welwood and the woman in the other end laid her on the bed, applied warmth to her feet, combed back her hair, bathed her temples with cold water, and she regained her senses. She then appeared more calm. Robert sent for a doctor, and giving the neighbour money, requested her to provide Isabella with whatever might be ordered, or seem necessary for her comfort.

'We have lost sight of young Welwood a while. It was a sad stroke for him, Isabella's choice of Raffles: his affection received a deep and grievous wound. He lamented, too, for her own dear sake, that she had committed her heart and happiness to such a man as he knew Raffles to be. His natural reserve, first increased by the accident of his lameness, now became greater. But he thought much, and wisely; and by-and-by, gave all his energies to his business. He became gradually prosperous in a moderate and steady way. He possessed the blessings of honest endeavour and honest success. There was, however, a great *gap* in his heart.

'He returned daily for a time to Isabella's cottage; and when she became tolerably well again, he often visited her. To make a long story short, as it is wearing late, and Sophy, I see, is very impatient, Isabella was, in a twelvemonth, what she should have been at first, Mrs. Welwood.'

Here some of the party drew the breath which had been for a time suspended. Some smiled, some wiped their eyes; the little ones clapped their hands. Others, among whom was Sophy, for want of some other means of expressing their feelings, clustered round the good grandfather, hung on his neck, and kissed his cheek.

'But the *glad*, grandfather?' cried Emily. 'We were not to have a mere catalogue of miseries.'

'*Glad*,' rejoined he, 'they were glad afterwards as long as they lived. The Welwoods of Forest-end are their children; you have heard of them.'

'Now, children,' said the old man, 'the moral?'

'That Jack Raffles was a bad man! cried a smart child.

The old people smiled, and said, there was no doubt of that.

'That Robert Welwood was a good man!' put in another.

'I am very glad she was made happy at last, though she did not deserve it, and it is not every young man that would have behaved so nobly as Robert,' ventured a sedate young lady, who had not spoken before.

'What think you of this moral?' cried Mr. Rysdale, as if he were going to say something smart for once in his life:

'Better marry a good man with a lame foot, than a bad one with a handsome face.'

This burst of genius having excited due commendation, the aged story-teller said the morals given were all very good, and he would only add the moral he had intended which was—'Children do not disregard the counsels of your parents who are likely to be your best friends in this world: they have the advantage of experience. Of course,' he added, 'parents ought to make allowances too for younger hearts.'

COTTAGE COOKERY.

BY ESTHER COPLEY—THIRTEENTH ARTICLE.

CHARITABLE COOKERY.

THIS chapter will consist of hints to persons in comfortable circumstances—especially young housekeepers, who, though they would be glad to assist their poor neighbours, want experience in the art of finding out the resources in their power, and directing them to the best advantage. It may also afford a hint to persons employed in domestic service, who often, without wilful selfishness or hardheartedness, but from mere want of thought and observation, overlook opportunities of doing good, which they might improve, without injury to their employers, and even with their full approbation. In any station of life, happy are they who possess the ability and the inclination to alleviate the distresses and promote the comforts of their fellow-creatures.

Where housekeeping is conducted on a liberal scale, and in freedom from anxious care as to the means of supply, there are two dangers to be guarded against by those who desire conscientiously to improve the means they possess of doing good to others:—One arises from the bad system of either expressly or tacitly allowing perquisites to servants—a liberty which is sure to be abused by unprincipled persons, and which puts a strong temptation in the way of such as are not ill-disposed. The 'grease-pot'* and the 'hog-tub' are mischievous means of robbery upon employers, privation of relief to poor neighbours, and positive destruction of property, which will one day have to be accounted for. Whether in this particular we have put into our hands the five talents, the two, or the one, it behoves us so to improve them, that we may sustain the character of good and faithful servants. The mistress who wishes to have honest and careful servants, and to do all the good she can, and ought to do, with the means which Providence has put in her power, must begin by paying her servants an equivalent for their labour in the direct form of wages, and steadily resisting every sort of perquisite, whether in the purchase of goods, in gratuities from visitors, or in the disposal of provisions, either in course of preparation for the family use, or remaining after the intended family purpose has been served. A pound or two additional would be thought much of in the wages of a servant, and yet be but a mere fraction compared with the waste avoided in the form of 'kitchen-stuff' and 'hog-wash.'

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* This has been justly and expressively called *The Horn-book of Thieving*.

The other obstacle referred to in the way of domestic charity—as well as of proper economy—is the want of constant personal superintendence on the part of the mistress of a family, and consequent ignorance of her own available resources. No mistress need think it beneath her to look into those affairs which it is her proper province to guide—nor need any one be discouraged by want of knowledge and experience. If she will but accustom herself to look round, she will daily become more prompt in perceiving what ought to be done, and more expert in adopting the best method of doing it. Two members of a committee happening to meet: one said to the other, 'I find we have a committee to-morrow. I suppose there is nothing particular to be brought forward. I do not think I shall attend—shall you?' 'Yes,' replied the other, 'while my name is on the committee, it is my duty to attend, and our meeting together may prove the very occasion of some important and useful suggestion.' The same just principle may be applied to the mistress of a family daily inspecting the contents of her larder. It is suggestive of thoughts of good management and benevolence. *This* requires attention for home consumption—*that* may properly be disposed of. *These* delicate little fragments may be acceptable to the sickly palate of such a neighbour. *Those* commoner articles will form a substantial meal for a hungry family. By constant and judicious attention in little things, a large amount of good may be effected at little or no expense.

It must be constantly borne in mind that every thing is of use; and made a standing rule, that nothing is to be thrown away without consideration. The foolish excuse of many heedless girls should never be twice admitted, 'Oh, I threw it away; I did not know it was good for anything. I gave it to the dog. I did not know it would be wanted.'

Cleanliness and neatness should be observed in setting away what is intended to be used for the poor, as well as in what is to be again set before the family. If things of different kinds, as meat and vegetables, are set away on the same dish, they spoil one another. Even if they are intended to be made up into one stew or soup, they are better not mixed till the cooking is to be set about. The fresher all such things can be used the better. Nothing is fit to be given to the poor that is not palatable and wholesome, and such as the giver would not hesitate to partake of herself, if circumstances required. At least twice a-week, there should be a thorough clearing of the pantry; and in summer, this should not be suffered to pass the second day. Vegetables should be cleared one day under another.

Liquor in which any kind of meat has been boiled is highly valuable. If not wanted as the basis of 'stock' in the family, it may easily be converted into good broth or soup for the poor. For either purpose it will be greatly enriched, if two joints be boiled in succession, which may be done without injury, provided the first dressed joint be fresh meat and white. Thus, if a joint of mutton or veal, or a turkey, be boiled first, a leg of pork, or a piece of beef, may with advantage be boiled in the same liquor; but white meats would be discoloured by boiling after salt meat of any kind.

The liquor in which salt meat has been boiled, may be used by adding to it an equal quantity of fresh liquor or water, and boiling down bones in it. If liquor in which fat meat, whether salt or fresh, has been boiled, be left to become cold, a cake of fat, which will have formed at top, should be removed before setting on the liquor to make soup. If there be more of it than would be desirable in the soup, it will serve to make dumplings for the soup, or common paste, as mentioned below. The liquor of salt meat should be steadily poured off, and all sediment left behind, as most of the salt particles will have settled there.

All bones that come from table should be taken care of, and boiled down. It is not at all likely that they have been gnawed or handled, or are in any way soiled. Some people rinse them slightly in cold water, but it is really not necessary. Shanks of mutton, lambs' feet, and bits of bone that come off in trimming a joint for cooking, will be a valuable addition to the soup-pot. Also the heads, necks, and feet of poultry. With a little boiling water and salt, they are easily cleaned, and they add great richness to soup or stew in general ; or, if wanted for the use of a sick person, excellent chicken-broth may be made with them, and the bones that come from table, using the liquor in which the fowls were boiled, (if boiled) or the liquor of any white fresh meat, but avoiding the liquor of salt meat, and rather using water, and making a smaller quantity of broth. The heads, feet, and bones of two fowls, will make a full pint of rich broth.

A digester is the most complete contrivance for extracting the goodness from bones. But any suitable saucepan answers very well. It should be kept close shut, and boil fast. Bones that have already been cleared of meat, should be boiled till they become quite white and dry, and will yield no more goodness ; then strain off the liquor. Those that will afford another picking, such as feet, shanks, or poultry trimmings, should be boiled till tender, then separated from such as are done with, and restored to the soup or broth from which they were taken.

There is a great deal of nourishment in fish, especially those of a gelatinous kind. In fact, they yield the very same jelly as isinglass, which is an expensive article, and much esteemed for its strengthening properties. The liquor in which fish has been boiled should be stewed with the heads, bones, and fins, as they come from table. It makes a delicate broth of itself, with the addition of an onion and a little parsley ; or it is a great improvement if added to any other soup that may be in hand.

Peas, groats, or barley from which soup or gruel has been made and strained, are often thrown away. This should not be done : if added to the soup in question, they will thicken and improve it. If further thickening is intended, remarks on the several articles suited for that purpose may be found in chapter IV.

In refined cookery only just the hearts or other prime parts of vegetables are used, such as celery, onions, &c. Much that is cut away would do equally well for flavouring, and if allowed time enough, would boil tender. They may be added to the soup without any additional expense or trouble. Almost any kind of vegetable may be added as they come from the table. Where there is a garden and plenty of vegetables at command, two or three gourds, beet-roots, carrots, onions, turnips, or Jerusalem artichokes, any or all will be an improvement. Let it not be imagined that the writer means that everything may be messed together, and would be good enough for poor people. Far from it. She would not for a moment encourage the use of anything that is not in itself wholesome and good. But she well knows, that by proper cooking, an art in which the poor are too often deficient, as well as being destitute of the conveniences, it is easy to produce from articles often wasted, a considerable quantity of palatable, wholesome, and nourishing food, which, in a poor struggling family, is highly acceptable,—especially in times of sickness, lying-in, or want of regular employment. The kind-hearted housekeeper, who has been induced fairly to try the experiment of thus doing good in a cheap way, is not likely to forget the sacred injunction, to 'gather up the fragments that remain, that nothing be lost.'

Before taking leave of this business of soup-making, it may be well to offer two remarks to the inexperienced housekeeper. First: it will be very desirable if she can induce her cook to become the willing helper and sharer in her schemes of benevolence. She must be a very ill-disposed person who would grumble at a little additional work, for the comfort and relief of others, and one who could be little trusted for acting uprightly by her employers. If, on the contrary, a servant should discover thoughtfulness, aptitude, and good will, in carrying out the kind designs of her mistress, she ought to be encouraged by evident approbation and satisfaction. Perhaps a small present by way of acknowledgment of her kind services, would not be misapplied. At any rate she should be regarded as taking an actual share in the work of benevolence. Her care and fidelity, though in themselves no more than duties, are advantageously employed in extending for those she serves, the means of doing good, and since the cheerful givers, in every rank of society are accepted according to what is in their power —not according to what is beyond it, we may be sure that silver and gold are not essential to true charity, but that those are truly benefactors, who, not having wealth at command, cheerfully and notionably exert themselves in preparing and administering what others provide. Such a servant is not likely to encourage worthless persons to spunge on the liberality of her employers, nor ought a system of favouritism to be upheld, even at her suggestion ; but she might with propriety be listened to, when, as occasions arise, she respectfully proposes some unexpensive modes of doing good hitherto overlooked, or points out objects of compassion and cases of distress. Second: there is a great advantage in well timing this sort of business so as to prevent its needlessly interfering with the regular family cooking, or with the evening's decent leisure of the kitchen. For want of attention in this particular, the arrangements of the family have been thrown into confusion, or the servant has been bustling about at an inconveniently late hour ; both mistress and servant have been irritated and discouraged, and the benevolent experiment has been given up in disgust. When a boiler-furnace is alight, or a pot over the fire and a piece of meat boiling, the liquor of which is intended to be made into soup, it saves trouble to collect together the thickening, vegetables and other additions and put them in as soon as the meat is taken out. Bones, unless very salt, may be put in the boiler with the meat and boil all the time. Or if this should not suit, all may be got ready and the saucepan set over the fire the last thing before the servant cleans herself for the afternoon, and boil without further trouble all the evening ; or again, unless the family dinner-hour be very early, the soup-pot might be set on at breakfast-time, as soon as the tea-kettle is removed, and the operation would be completed before the fire was wanted for dinner-cooking. It should be contrived not to begin such an affair when it would not be convenient to finish it : but a little good management on the part, both of the mistress and servant, will accomplish all without any confusion.

RECIPES.

Apple Jelly.—Take seven pounds of good, ripe, boiling apples ; and without peeling or extracting the cores, taking out the stalks and eyes only, cut them in pieces and boil or bake in two quarts of water, until the whole is reduced to a pulp. This pulp, which thickens in cooling, is to be poured into a jelly-bag placed near the fire, and left till all is run through. When clear, add to each pint of the pulp eight ounces of white or loaf sugar, with the strained juice of a lemon, and the peel chopped very fine. Then boil the whole until it becomes a tolerably stiff jelly, (which may be ascertained by cooling a small quantity on a plate,) strain it once more through the bag or a piece of muslin, and pour into moulds or pots. If the rinds of the apples be red, the jelly will be of a rich colour: it will keep good for two or three years.

Beet-root Pickle.—Wash the beet well, but be careful not to cut off the shoots, boil it till quite tender, then peel and cut it in very thin slices : add cold vinegar, cayenne and white pepper to your taste. This is a cheap and useful pickle.

Remedy for Chilblains.—Cut an onion in thick slices, and with these rub the chilblains thoroughly, on two or three nights before a good fire, and they will soon disappear.

To Clean Silks or Merinos, &c.—Grate two or three large potatos, add to them a pint of cold water, let them stand a short time, and pour off the liquid clear, or strain it through a sieve, when it will be fit for use. Lay the silk on a flat surface, and apply the liquid with a clean sponge, till the dirt is well separated, dip each piece in a pail of clean water, and hang up to dry without wringing. Iron whilst damp on the wrong side. Should the silk be of more than one colour, it is desirable, to wet a small piece first, lest the dress should be spoiled, by moisture causing the colours to run ; but for self-coloured silks, the direction is an excellent one ; and satinettes, even of light colours, if not greased or stained, make up again nearly equal to new.

Family Washing.—[The following method, though not generally known, is much practised in the midland counties.] Melt together half a-pound each of washing soda and of soap cuttings, mix well with sixteen gallons of water, pour it lukewarm over the dirty linen, and leave to soak for twenty-four hours. Drain this water from the clothes, and put them into a boiler, with a second supply of the same preparation cold, and let them boil for rather a longer time than if they had been previously washed. They will then require to be washed out in clean warm water, looking carefully over them that the parts requiring it may be rubbed ; afterwards rinse in the usual way. This direction applies to all white and brown-holland articles. Bobbin, net and lace, retain their colour best, if only *scalded*, not *boiled*. This mode of washing has been adopted for many years in a family of seven persons, the linen is of an excellent colour, with only half the assistance formerly required, and the quantity of soap used is much lessened.

N.B. The refuse water is a good manure for fruit trees.

To remove a Tight Stopper from a Glass Bottle.—Warm the bottle before the fire, and then gently and cautiously rest the neck on the edge of the top bar of a grate or the edge of the hot plate of a stove, beginning with the cooler part and gradually approaching the centre. Try the stopper from time to time, observing never to twist it round, but to draw it straight out. This has been found to succeed when other methods have failed. If it be a smelling-bottle, oil the stopper when it is out, to prevent its being fixed again.—[*The foregoing recipes are from Correspondents.*]

To destroy Caterpillars in Gooseberry Trees.—Gather dust from any turnpike road, and shake it well amongst the trees, and the caterpillars will immediately fall to the ground. It is an excellent plan to dust the trees twice or three times a week, as it will effectually prevent the lodgment of caterpillars.

HOUSEHOLD WALLS.

We talk of 'old familiar faces'
And love them warmly and sincerely ;
But there are old familiar places
That cling to us almost as dearly.

Say, who among us, with a heart
Where feeling's holy sunshine falls,
Can bear, untouched, to turn and part
From even long-known household walls ?

Walls, that have echoed to our pleasure,
Walls, that have hidden us in grief,
Been shaken by our dancing measure,
And garnished by our Christmas leaf.

The chairs, that we have drawn around
The twilight fire, with friends beside us,
When in that tiny world we found
The peace the larger world denied us.

The table, where our arm has leaned,
And held our brow in pensive thinking,
The cosy curtain that has screened
When north-east draughts have found us thinking.

Oh ! are there not some hearts, that ever
A tint of love from these can borrow ;
And when they say ' Good-bye,' can never,
Take the last look without deep sorrow !

And how the spirit learns to talk
To some old tree or whitethorn hedge,
Or worship some poor garden walk,
As though 'twere bound by sacred pledge.

Oh ! many a throbbing heart will yearn
To household wall, or old green lane ;
And many a farewell glance will turn,
Half dimmed, to peep just once again,

At some familiar noteless thing,
Which we have dwelt with till it seems
A feather in the gentle wing
That nestles all our happiest dreams.

Oh ! love, thou hast a noble throne
In bosoms where thy life-light falls,
So warm and wide, that they have sighed,
At leaving even household walls.

ELIZA COOK.

FAMILY SECRETS.

A CHILD'S QUESTION

WHAT IS THE USE OF THE WIND?

'OH, mama, the wind is *so* high; it almost blew me down, coming home from school. What is the *use* of the wind?' This was the impatient speech of little Mary Gordon, as without stopping to make her customary curtsey, she ran into the parlour and sat down on a footstool before the fire.

Mrs. Gordon, who was sitting at needlework at the window, looked up in surprise, but she only quietly said, 'When you have sent away that ugly frown from your brow, Mary, and are in a humour to *listen*, I will *tell* you something about the use of the wind.' Now the little girl had no idea when she asked the question of having it answered, she spoke it in a fretful complaining spirit, because she had been inconvenienced and made a little uncomfortable by the wind; but Mrs. Gordon had a happy knack of turning everything to account—even her daughter's ill-temper—and the result was, that Mary got up a little ashamed of herself, and after taking off her cloak and bonnet, drew the stool to her mother's side, saying with a smile, 'Well, mama, I should very much like to hear what is the use of the wind?'

'The wind,' said Mrs. Gordon, 'has *many* uses, but perhaps the most important is the effect it has on the atmosphere—or air. A gentle breeze is, you know by your own experience, very pleasant in the hot days of summer; but the very high winds we have about this time of the year, are quite as necessary, though they are not, I will allow, so agreeable. The leaves of the trees which fall in autumn, and the plants which wither up and die (though they have their uses in other ways) send up unhealthy vapours which would bring on diseases, if the wind did not carry them away. So you see, my dear Mary, that instead of complaining of the wind for almost blowing you down, you ought to have been thankful to God for sending it, because, without it, instead of being a happy, merry little girl, running about and enjoying yourself, you might be laid on a bed of sickness and pain.'

'Oh, mama, I had no idea that the wind was of any use,' said Mary, 'but I think I shall never complain of it again.'

'I hope not, my dear, God knows what is good for us, better than we can know for ourselves. If you get your Bible, and read the hundred and forty-seventh Psalm and the eighteenth verse, you will find it is said, "He causeth his wind to blow;" and again in the hundred and forty-eighth Psalm, it speaks of "stormy wind fulfiling his word."'

'Then,' continued Mrs. Gordon, after her little daughter had found the passages in Scripture, 'Then the wind fills the sails of ships and carries them to the port to which they are going. Winds which have been heated by the sun, bring warm gales to parts of the earth which are cold, and cool breezes from the ocean blow upon hot countries, and make them pleasant as well as healthful.'

'Dear me:' exclaimed the little girl 'who would have thought that the wind did so much good?'

'God makes nothing in vain, my dear Mary, as you grow older you will see more and more of his wisdom and goodness; and, I hope, that every fresh discovery will teach you to *love* him more and more. Everything in *nature* obeys his word—indeed, it has no power to resist. If he command the *sun* to shine, his beams break through the clouds and mists; if he desire the *grass* to grow, it springs up under our feet, and the *winds*, as you have seen, are ready at his bidding. It is only the human heart which rebels against him, and opposes his will.'

'Ah, mama,' cried Mary, hanging down her head, 'I see it is very wrong to be ill-tempered with what God has given us for our good. But I'll never be so again. Indeed, I wont mama.' Here the little girl threw her arms around her mother's neck, and received a kiss of forgiveness for the past, and encouragement to persevere in the good resolution she had formed.

THE SELF-ADVANCEMENT OF EDWARD BLAKE.

BY MARTIN DOYLE—PART IV.

While her husband was making continued progress in the economical management of his land, Mrs. Blake was doing wonders in the dairy department. In fact, she would have been restless and unhappy without her accustomed occupation of butter-making, and the society of cows and calves. What would a farm have been to her without a dairy? As she had not yet been blessed with children, the satisfaction of rearing the offspring of her cows was the more prized by her.

While the number of her cows was limited, she milked them with her own hands. She knew the importance of drawing the milk completely from the udder—the last drop being the richest—and the propriety of being gentle and patient with the cows, if they were cross or ticklish at the pail, and how likely they were to be rendered still more ill-tempered by the rude treatment of a passionate milk-maid. For these reasons, Mrs. Blake did not give up her work to another person. It was pleasant to see this active and industrious young woman, at six o'clock in the morning, commencing her agreeable employment in the cow-house, filling her pail and singing to an Ayrshire cow, "So tiny, and so tiny, my pretty little cow stand still:" the affectionate playfulness with which the husband and wife conversed together on such occasions, was almost as cordial and animated as in their courting days.

All farm live stock when confined, and fed on green crops and roots, &c., make large quantities of manure; the more cows so kept, the more manure, and the more manure, the more green crops; and the more corn too and *straw*, which is such a chief element in the production of manure. Well aware of such facts, Ned increased the number of his cows and swine, as fast as he could raise increasing quantities of food for them, gradually getting rid of his sheep, which were now beginning to become less profitable to him and unnecessary to his new system, when the water meadows became productive, which they soon did on the porous limestone soil. Swine now became a more convenient stock, because the butter-milk and rinsings of milk vessels with clover, cabbages, turnips, mangel-wurzel leaves, afforded abundant food for them during the summer half-year.

It would appear that the Blakes had taken some of their modes of management from Mr. Skillit's interesting pamphlet, and were resolved to try if a cow and pig could be maintained on every acre of arable land, besides other returns.

As this matter is deeply important to all small holders, I shall venture before I conclude what I have to say respecting the Blakes, to make a short digression in order to notice it more particularly. Mr. Skillit, who was brought up as a grocer and linen-draper, became possessed of two acres of freehold land, tithe and rate free, from which he thought he might derive the means of subsistence for himself and a small family—trade having been a failure with him. He states that he had been greatly struck with the following rules published by the London Labourer's-Friend Society.

'*How to keep a cow and a pig upon an acre of land.*'

1. Never let the cow out of the cow-house.
2. Carry her food and water to her.
3. Do not keep one foot of land in pasture.
4. Dig your land instead of ploughing it.
5. Never throw away any thing that can be turned into manure.
6. Keep your land well-weeded, and collect a large dung-hill.

By attention to those rules, Mr. Skillit contrived to obtain with *spade-husbandry*, an estimated produce of £74. in one year from the two acres, the principal items of which produce were about £30. from milk and butter sold, after supplying his family, fattening one calf and rearing another; about £14. for seven thousand cabbages sold at ½*d*. each; £3. for the fatted calf, about the same sum for a fat pig, and twenty sacks of potatos. What is there then, said Ned to his wife, to prevent us, after another season or so from keeping a score of cows and as many pigs? There was really nothing to prevent this, especially as Mrs. Blake was such a first-rate hand at butter-making, and was unlikely to suffer from the pilfering or negligence of servants.

Every good heifer calf was reared, and that too without any great loss of butter, in the economical manner recommended by Mr. Cramp of Lewes, in Sussex. The calf, after sucking the cow for two days, was separated from her, and for three weeks fed from the pail twice a-day, with new milk. It was then fed with skim milk, thickened with about three pints of oatmeal-gruel heated at first (to warm the milk) but afterwards added cold. At ten weeks old, the calf was weaned by gradual withdrawal of the oatmeal, and the addition of water to the milk. Ned gave some oilcake to nourish his calves, because he was aware of the advantage of feeding all young animals highly in the beginning; sometimes he gave a little corn instead of oilcake, until the calves were able to eat sufficiently of the tender and nutritious green food provided for them.

His feeding economy generally was as follows,—About the end of April the meadows began to be mown for the cows, and the mowings for them were continued, with occasional interruptions until the end of October. Rye, clover, vetches, and the lower leaves of mangel-wurzel, the thinnings of turnips and parsnips afforded a beneficial change of food to them; and all these artificial productions with the butter-milk, &c. from the dairy, maintained the growing pigs in excellent condition, which he had bought (or had bred) in sufficient numbers in the summer, when the dairy was in full operation and vegetables were plenty. Towards winter the pigs were fattened in the most expeditious and saving manner, on small potatos, parsnips, and Jerusalem artichokes, boiled and mixed with bran or meal and butter-milk. The cleanliness of their troughs was admirable, and their bedding dry, clean and comfortable. Ned introduced from Mr. Skillit's hints a plan, rather novel in Connaught, that of occasionally washing the pigs with soap-suds. And oh! how they enjoyed the scrubbing! It was quite delightful to see them under the hands of the operator. This cleaning process and frequent rubbing made their skins clear and ruddy, instead of being covered with a thick coating of scurf to the great injury of their condition. A pig scratching itself at a gate-post, intimates as plainly as it can, 'I want to be scratched;' and yet how rarely is the personal comfort arising from currycomb and brush afforded to it! Ned was considerate towards his pigs in this point, both for his own sake and theirs.

The cows too were currried and brushed by a smart boy, who performed this service daily, not only for the purpose of cleanliness and for relieving the irritation of skin, to which cows in confinement are so liable, but for health sake. Shame on the slatterns of either sex, who allow filth to adhere like a plaister to the flanks of their cows, until it can only be removed with the hair along with it, rather than use a little regular manual labour. If they could but enter into the sensations of the animal when undergoing a gentle scrubbing process!

The dairy employments were nearly as follow,—After the foul litter had been removed from the cows, and fresh food given to them in small quantities (they were fed every second hour,) and while their udders were being washed and rubbed dry by Mrs. Blake, the boy used his currycomb at every spare moment, and afterwards attended to the pigs. Mrs. Blake and a girl were very busy all day, scalding and airing the churn, coolers, pails, tubs, hair-cloth sieves, &c., and preparing for a churning or washing, and packing butter.

Accordingly as the cows and pigs multiplied, Ned was obliged to enlarge his buildings. It was well for him that he had reserved some of his capital for such an emergency. The land on which the house and existing offices stood, being his own property, he used lime-mortar and stone, instead of clay for the walls, and slates in preference to thatch, for the roofing. In the new cow-house, he made a passage in front of the cows behind their mangers for the more easy distribution of their food; and every thing economical was done for the collection of the urine. He also built a room for roots.

That he had incurred no expense for the implements of horse-labour, was fortunate for him. A simple hand-machine, merely a long-headed rake, with moveable pins, for making drills, spades, forks, hoes, shovels, barrows, a wooden-roller and seed-harrow, a small urine cask on a wheel frame, sufficed for the purposes of his culture.

In the sowing of seeds he saved considerably and improved on his English practice in some respects: for instance, instead of scattering turnip-seed broadcast, as if purposely to cause the greatest amount of labour in hoeing out plants afterwards, he delivered the seed from a bottle through a quill, at the proper distances at which the plants were to stand, instead of sowing the entire line of drill. The seed so economized, was of *some* value, and the after-labour was diminished; and, moreover, there was no nutriment taken from the soil to promote useless vegetation. Mangel-wurzel seed also was dropped with great economy at the regular distances,—so in every instance of seed-sowing.

As the workmen became accustomed to the use of the digging-fork, their expertness increased, so that they could dig from ten to fifteen rods or more in the day, according to the state of the ground. Therefore, at a 1*d.* a rod, a man could earn much more wages than is usually paid in the west of Ireland. Let any one who doubts this, read the report of a prize digging match recently held in the county of Wexford, at which the competitors dug a rod, each fourteen inches deep, in from fourteen and a-half to twenty-three minutes. Would not Blake then have been very foolish to employ horses instead of men?

He managed too to get over his season's work as rapidly and far better with a spade or fork, than he could have done it with a plough: thus—suppose a piece of ground was to be dug for drills of potatos, parsnips. carrots, mangel-wurzel, drum-head cabbages, or any other crops requiring wide intervals between the drills. He dug in the first instance only the breadth of drill necessary, marked with a line, and then went to some other work until the crops were so far advanced as to require the loosening of soil between the drills. The deep digging there was of more service to the growing crops then, than if it had been performed in the first instance.

One of the objections to the disuse of horse-labour is, that horse-dung is a better manure than cow-manure, particularly in cold clay soils. But this is an insufficient reason for keeping horses on small farms, because cold soils may be rendered warm by draining, and the much greater quantity of manure obtained by a system which admits of keeping a great stock of cows and swine, much more than compensates for any supposed deficiency in the *quality* of the manure obtained from these very profitable animals. In Ned's case the stock were well fed, therefore the manure was excellent for his warm limestone soil. How few cows or pigs could the Blakes have kept if they had pursued the old-fashioned plan?

Sir William B—— was quite amazed at the rapid advancement of the young man whom he had taken by the hand—and was heard to say, that if any other little farmers who had the means of doing so, would follow Blake's system, they need not emigrate. Let them try *spade-husbandry*, and exert their energies both of mind and body, and with fair rents, they may render themselves as independent as Ned Blake so quickly became. If ever the world shall hear any more particulars through me of the Blakes, they will probably learn what has been hinted to me in confidence by Sir William B—— that he intends to let them hold one hundred acres of his land. Then indeed the advocates for horse-labour may be content, as the keeping of about four horses on one hundred acres, may become justifiable and even necessary. But I am certain that Blake will always employ spade-labour to a great extent, inasmuch as perfect culture of so much land will give employment to many hands, and will be the most effectual means of promoting its fertility and advancing still more the prosperity of Mr. and Mrs. Edward Blake.

INDIAN CORN.

INDIAN corn, or maize, is a plant very little known in England, but it is extensively grown in America, Spain, Italy, Egypt, and many other countries.

About twenty years ago, Cobbett recommended its cultivation as an article of food far superior to the potato in nutritive quality, far exceeding, in produce, that of all other corn in quantity. Probably, however, he too highly estimated the benefits to be derived from it; for though in some fine warm seasons it may be successfully grown here, yet our fluctuating climate renders the crop exceedingly hazardous and uncertain. There are many varieties, some of which are more hardy than others, and may be grown in England.

The cultivation is easy. The corn should be planted in May; if put into the ground earlier, it is liable to be destroyed by frosts. Plant in rows two feet apart, and nine inches between each seed. If grown in the garden instead of the field, it will be advantageous to raise the plants first in a hot-bed, or in a warm border under a frame. This method is desirable, not only on account of forwarding the plants, but also because, when transplanted, the redundant growth is prevented, and the ear is more perfectly matured.

A new kind of maize, imported from Spain, has been grown in the neighbourhood of London, during the past year, with such success, that there is very little doubt but that in a few years this species of grain will be more valued, and largely cultivated by English farmers.

Indian corn is very nutritious; and while its cultivation is no longer to be regarded as impossible, all who wish to extend the range of their comforts, should give it a much higher place in domestic economy than they have hitherto been willing to do. In the south of Europe, it is much used for making bread. In Italy, the flour made from it is called 'polenta,' and many very agreeable and economical dishes are composed of this flour. In the United States, a farinaceous food is prepared from the superior kinds for infants, which is said to keep them free from certain internal complaints to which young children are subject.

There is one kind which we have quite successfully cultivated in a garden;—it is that known in the United States by the name of 'sweet corn,' as it contains a greater portion of sugar. It is a very delicious table vegetable, and is used in an unripe state, as we use peas and beans. The method of cooking is by simply boiling the ears, which, when seasoned with pepper and salt, are taken in the hand, and the corns bitten off, somewhat similar to our manner of eating asparagus, which vegetable it rivals in flavour and delicacy.

Indian-corn bread.—To a quart of sour milk or butter-milk put as much of the meal as will make it a thick batter; a little salt, and a teaspoonful of carbonate of soda dissolved in water, acts upon the acid of butter-milk, and the effervescence causes the bread to be light: a spoonful of sugar is an improvement, and so also is a little butter or lard. This must be baked in well-greased tins, allowing the cakes to be about an inch thick: a quick oven is indispensable. They are best eaten hot, but are very good cold. Treacle is capital with them. When sour milk cannot be procured, new milk may be used, with a tablespoonful of vinegar; but the carbonate of soda must not be stirred in till just before putting in the oven.

Mush.—This is the same thing as Lancashire oatmeal porridge: it must be very well boiled. In summer it is eaten cold, and is very much approved. It should be eaten with treacle.

Indian slap-jack.—Scald a quart of Indian meal; when lukewarm add a few spoonsful of wheaten flour, half a teacup of yeast, and a little salt; or mix half the meal in boiling milk: when cool, stir in the remainder of the meal, with two or three spoonsful of flour, three eggs, and two tea-spoonsful of salt, so as to make a thick batter. These are to be baked upon a baking-stone, in the same manner as girdle-cakes, &c. are baked in some parts of Great Britain. They are best eaten hot.

Hoe cakes.—Scald a quart of the meal with a pint of water; stir in two tea-spoonsful of salt, and a little butter melted; put it, when properly mixed, into a well-greased tin, and bake it half-an-hour.

Johnny cakes.—Make a thick batter as above; mould it in the hand into small cakes, rubbing a good deal of flour in the hand to prevent their sticking. These cakes are fried in lard; when browned on one side, turn the other. They take about twenty minutes in baking. Eat them hot, with treacle.

Hominy is made from Indian corn freed from the husk in a mill, and resembles tapioca. It may be prepared in the same manner, either by well boiling in milk or water, and sugar and spice added.

Indian cakes.—A pound of butter, a pound and a-half of sugar, six eggs, a tea-spoonful of ginger, and the same of cinnamon; three pounds and a-quarter of fine Indian meal and a quarter of a pound of flour. Bake in small tin moulds, and eat when cold.

ITALIAN PREPARATIONS OF INDIAN CORN.—*Timballe di polenta.*—Mix fine Indian meal with boiling water thoroughly into a smooth paste; keep it very gently boiling for ten minutes, carefully stirring all the time: remove it from the fire, and add as much fresh butter, strong brown gravy, grated Parmesan cheese, and as much garlic or onion as suits your palate; simmer again for ten minutes, continuing to stir it; pour it into a well-buttered mould. Serve with brown gravy.

Polenta grocchi.—Stir the meal in hot water, and simmer until of a consistence which just allows it to run from the pan; pour the mass on a board, and when cold cut into diamonds of one inch sides; the thickness should be about half an inch; put the pieces close together, but not touching, on a dish, layer upon layer, with a little butter and grated cheese between them; or, if required to be sweet, sugar or treacle and spice. These things prevent the layers from sticking together. Bake or steam until the cheese be softened, and the butter, sugar, &c. is thoroughly incorporated with the paste. This is quite a popular Italian dish.

There are many other modes of dressing Indian corn flour which will suggest themselves to the careful and economical housewife: indeed, all our usual dishes prepared from flour or oatmeal may be agreeably varied to suit some tastes, by the use of the meal.

It may be well to add, that besides the uses of the corn itself, the leaves and stalks are excellent fodder for cattle. In America they are extensively used for this purpose.

PLAIN INSTRUCTIONS FOR CHILDREN IN DAY SCHOOLS.

EVERY child who goes to school, will do well to consider the following rules for his conduct there, and ask himself daily the questions added to them.

COMING TO SCHOOL IN TIME.

When a time is fixed for a school to begin, it is the duty of all to be there by that time. If you are late, you miss joining your teacher and companions in prayer, and if the Scripture lesson is the first given, you lose the most important part of your instruction that day. Besides, by being late at school, you are forming the very bad habit of being late at other duties. Try then never to be late, and ask yourself each day,—*Was I in school in good time this morning?*

CLEANLINESS.

Every child should come neat and clean to school. As far as only washing their hands and faces, all may do this for themselves; and as to their clothes, if they themselves take care to keep them as clean as they can, there are few parents who send their children to school, but will take care to do the rest.—*Did I wash myself well before I went to school this morning?*

BEHAVIOUR AT PRAYERS.

Prayers are offered every morning, before any work is done in the school, in order that we may begin with asking God's help in doing it; and in the evening, that we may end with begging His blessing upon what we have done. Every child should kneel reverently during prayers, not look about the school, but attend to what is said, and as far as possible make the petitions his own.—*Have I this day prayed in school or only moved my lips without attending to what I said?*

ATTENTION TO LESSONS.

Whatever you do, give your whole attention to it, and remember that each time you needlessly look off your book, you are doing wrong, for you are in school to learn, not to play. By inattention, you are depriving yourself of the good you came to school to get, your parents of that they pay for you to receive, and your teachers of the reward of all their trouble with you. Ask yourself then each day, —*Have I been attentive to my lessons?*

CARE OF BOOKS IN SCHOOL.

If your parents pay for your school-books it will be for your own advantage for you to take care of them. If they are found for you, it is your duty to handle them as carefully as you can, not to pull or tear them, and to show your teacher any leaf that becomes loose. But above all, when you read in the Bible, you ought to treat it as the WORD OF GOD, and be particularly careful not to let it fall, or hold it in any way with disrespect. To the care of your books, you should add that of the room in which you are taught. Be careful not to spill ink on the desks or floor, not to make marks on the walls, not to injure the forms, nor break the windows, or do any kind of damage.—*Have I to-day attended to these particulars?*

TALKING AND MAKING A NOISE IN SCHOOL.

Children should remember, that when they are in school they may not talk to each other, or play, or in any way disturb the lessons going on. Good order must be kept, and every rule your teacher has made, attended to.—*Has fault been found with me for talking to-day?*

OBEDIENCE TO MY TEACHER.

I ought to feel very glad I can go to school, and that any one is kind enough to teach me. I must respect my teacher, and always do at once what I am told, for the Bible says, "Obey them that have the rule over you, and submit yourselves." Heb. xiii. 17.—*Have I this day done so?*

MONITORS.

If older children are placed in charge of classes, it is their duty to teach as diligently as they can. Not to suffer idleness in their class to pass unheeded, but at the same time to be kind and gentle with all under their care. They should also try to teach with as little noise and confusion as possible. If you have been a monitor, Ask yourself—*How you performed your duties as such?*

BEHAVIOUR TO MY SCHOOL-FELLOWS.

The Bible tells you, "Be ye kind one to another, tender-hearted, forbearing one another, if any man have a quarrel against any; even as Christ forgave you, so also do ye." In all your intercourse with each other, let this be your rule, and so will you show yourselves brethren, the children of one Father, who is in heaven. —*How have I behaved to my school-fellows to-day?*

When you say your prayers at home each night, think over these rules, and examine yourself by the questions added to them, and wherein you find you have failed in your duty, pray for God's help to enable you to do better for the time to come.

[The foregoing instructions are published on a sheet, in large type, for hanging up in school-rooms, price two pence, by Messrs. Groombridge and Sons.]

BE SOMETHING.

It is the duty of every one to take some active part as actor on the stage of life. Some seem to think that they can vegetate, as it were, without being any thing in particular. Man was not made to rust out his life. It is expected he should "act well his part." He must be something. He has a work to perform, which it is his duty to attend to. We are not placed here to grow up, pass through the various stages of life, and then die without having done any thing for the benefit of the human race. It is a principle in the creed of the Mahometans, that every one should have a trade. No Christian doctrine could be better than that. Is a man to be brought up in idleness? Is he to live upon the wealth which his ancestors have acquired by frugal industry? Is he placed here to pass through life like an automaton? Has he nothing to perform as a citizen of the world? A man who does nothing is useless to his country as an inhabitant. A man who does nothing is a mere cipher. He does not fulfil the obligations for which he was sent into the world; and when he dies, he has not finished the work that was given him to do. He is a mere blank in creation. Some are born with riches and honours upon their heads. But does it follow that they have nothing to do in their career through life? There are certain duties for every one to perform. *Be something.* Don't live like a hermit, and die unregretted.

See that young man, no matter what are his circumstances, if he has no particular business to pursue, he will not accomplish much. Perhaps he has a father abundantly able to support him. Perhaps that father has laboured hard to obtain a competence that is sufficient for his sons to live in idleness. Can they go abroad with any degree of self-complacency, squandering away the money which their fathers have earned by hard labour? No one who has the proper feelings of a citizen, who wishes to be ranked among the useful members of society, would live such a life.

Be something. Don't be a drone. You may rely upon your present possessions, or on your future prospects, but these riches may fly away, or hopes may be blighted; and if you have no place of your own, in such case, ten to one, you will find your path beset with thorns. Want may come upon you before you are aware of it; and, having no profession, you find yourself in anything but an enviable condition. It is, therefore, important that you should *be something.* Don't depend upon Fortune, for she is a fickle support, which often fails when you lean upon her with the greatest confidence. Trust to your own exertions.

Be something. Pursue that vocation for which you are fitted by nature; pursue it faithfully and diligently. You have a part to act, and the honour in performing that part depends upon yourself. It is sickening to see a parcel of idle boys hanging around a father, spending the money which he has earned by his industry, without attempting to do anything for themselves. 'Be something,' should be their motto. Every one is capable of learning some 'art, trade, or mystery,' and can earn a competence for himself. He should *be something*, and not bring down the gray hairs of his father with sorrow to the grave. He should learn to depend upon himself. Idle boys, living upon a parent, without any profession or employment, are ill qualified for good members of society. And we regret to say, that it is too often the case that it is the parent's fault that they are thus brought up. They should be taught to *be something*, to know how to provide for themselves in case of necessity; and to act well their part:—they will reap the honour which therein lies.

COTTAGE FARMER'S CALENDAR.

BY MARTIN DOYLE—JANUARY.

THE FIELD.

We shall take for granted that every part of your field intended for cropping, has been already dug deeply and roughly, and either ribbed, or ridged up to expose the greatest surface. On stiff land thus exposed, the action of frost will be more useful in loosening it than weeks of labour. If water rests on the surface this is a certain proof that draining is necessary; and until this be done, nothing can proceed profitably or with satisfaction to the cultivator. Drain then without delay.

The earth, at the beginning of this month, is almost in the deadness of slumber; this is therefore the proper time for cutting drains. These should be from three to four feet deep, (according to the facilities for bearing away the water which will collect in them,) and from eighteen to twenty-four feet apart; in thorough draining. according to the quality of the under-soil, and the circumstances under which the wetness affects the land. The old practice of running drains directly or aslant across the inclination of the land is done away with, as being mistaken in principle. Let the drains be in the direction of the slope.

When they are dug, cleared out perfectly, and levelled, begin at the higher part of the drains, and throw in stones not larger than a pigeon's egg, or coarse gravel carefully screened, to the depth of eight or nine inches; cover these materials with brushwood, ferns, rushes, or heath, &c. Then throw in the under-soil which was last dug out, lay the surface earth over this, making allowance for the sinking of the filling, and scatter the remainder over the field; however bad its quality it will become fertile when under the influences of the atmosphere and manures. No treading in of the clay over the stones is necessary, its own adhesiveness and closeness will prevent any water from running downward through it into the stones and choking them with particles of earth; the water will trickle from the sides of the drains into the proper channel. Where stones are not abundant, tiles and pipes are the proper substitutes. The principal effects of draining are, the facility given to the filtering of water through the soil and the passage of the air; the loosening of the land for the spade or plough; its increased warmth, especially at those seasons when the rapid evaporation of moisture by the sun or wind, chills the earth and its vegetation; an earlier season for sowing, and a more secure one in the harvesting of late autumnal crops. In a word, an increased produce of one-third may be confidently expected from the judicious thorough draining of clay soils, and the removal of springs from any soils.

Keep the mouths of all drains, ditches and furrows, free from lodgment of water, and for this purpose take care that your out-fall is sufficiently below their level.

Trim and plash hedges. Plant thorn quicks after properly preparing the soil for them. Shorten the stems of the quicks to about six inches from the roots, and plant them either upright in the usual English way, on a strip of raised mould, or horizontally on a sod turned in the Irish manner as the outside ledge of a bank-fence.

If the ground be hard, wheel out dung and the scourings of ditches for composts, and mix the materials as soon as possible. Turn and mix composts that have been previously made. If you raise a dunghill in the field, cover it with some of the surrounding earth. This crust prevents the escape of the volatile substances of the dung. You may make a very good compost, without any dung—reserving this for the crops which must have putrescent manures, thus:—

Make a platform of sods or mould six inches thick, twelve feet wide, and of any length. On this bed spread quick-lime about three inches thick. Let the lime be then not only slaked but moistened well with a solution of salt, in the proportion of at least 7 lbs. of salt to half a-hogshead of water, and pour this solution gradually and evenly on the lime accordingly as the latter imbibes it. Then spread a layer of mould over the slaked lime, four or five inches thick, and over that again, another course of lime to be treated in the same manner, and so on, until you have accumulated a sufficient mass of compost. If the soil of a headland be applied for this purpose, one or two courses of earth and lime will be more convenient. When the last layer of earth has been put on, let the whole be cut through and well mixed, in which state it should lie, until a short time before it is to be used, when it ought to be turned again. The chemical combination of the salt and lime produces new properties of fertilization.

THE GARDEN.

Trench worn-out squares. A shallow soil is deepened effectually by bringing up some of the under-soil at every principal digging. Clay soil in particular is most easily turned up and divided by a three-pronged fork sufficiently long and stout for the purpose. Do not be satisfied, either in the field or the garden, with merely loosening the upper soil: the under soil must be opened thoroughly. This is necessary, not only in clay land (after draining), but beneficial even in the poorest gravel soil, as experience has proved.

Plant early York and nonpareil cabbages. Sow Marshall's dwarf prolific peas, or the early frame, and long-pod beans.

Make cuttings of choice gooseberries, currants and raspberries. By picking off the buds of the lower end you will prevent the cuttings from pushing out suckers. Keep your artichokes covered with long litter.

Fork the ground about your cabbages and other growing crops, and earth-up young peas, &c., if you have ventured to sow them in November. Never sow too soon as a general rule. Be guided by the state of the land, of the weather and of the usual climate. Do not try to force a season. The cottager cannot afford loss of time or seed; unless he has a very profitable market for early productions, he will find that crops sown or planted at the natural time will be much more productive and certain than those sown before their time. The later sown ones overtake the former in growth and ripening, nine times out of ten.

Employ some of the long evenings in tying reed-straw together for matting, to protect your early garden productions from frost, and in repairing tools, &c. Spinning flax and wool ought to occupy much of the time of the females of your family. And every thing which tends to the education and moral improvement of the household should be a principal consideration in the employment of the long winter nights of this month.

BENEFITS OF DRAINAGE.

The isle of Ely was at one period in a desolate state, being frequently inundated by the upland waters, and destitute of the means of drainage; the lower parts became a wilderness of stagnant pools, the exhalations from which loaded the air with pestiferous vapours and fogs. From the improvements which have from time to time been made, and particularly within the last fifty years, an alteration has taken place which may appear to be the effect of magic. By the labour, industry, and spirit of the inhabitants, a forlorn waste has been converted into pleasant and fertile pastures, and they themselves have been rewarded by bounteous harvests. Drainage, embankments, engines, and enclosures, have given stability to the soil, (which in its nature is as rich as the Delta of Egypt) as well as salubrity to the air.

The demand for labour produced by drainage is incalculable; but when it is stated that where sedge and rushes grew but a few years since, we now have fields of waving oats, and even wheat, it must be evident that it is very great. From 1796 to 1805, the mortality was one in thirty-one; from 1806 to 1815, one in forty; and from 1816 to 1825, one in forty-seven; the latter being less than the exact mean mortality of the kingdom for the last two years. These figures clearly show, that the mortality has wonderfully diminished in the last half-century; and who can doubt but that the increased salubrity of the fens, produced by drainage, is a chief cause of the improvement.

VARIETIES.

Waterproof Boots.—I have had three pairs of boots for the last six years (no shoes,) and I think I shall not require any more for the next six years to come. The reason is, that I treat them in the following manner: I put a pound of tallow and half a pound of rosin in a pot on the fire; when melted and mixed, I warm the boots and apply the hot stuff with a painter's brush, until neither the sole or the upper leather will suck in any more. If it is desired that the boots should immediately take a polish, melt an ounce of wax with a tea-spoonful of lamp black. A day after the boots have been treated with tallow and rosin, rub over them this wax in turpentine, but not before the fire. The exterior will then have a coat of wax alone, and will shine like a mirror. Tallow, or any other grease becomes rancid and rots the stitching as well as leather; but the rosin gives it an antiseptic quality which preserves the whole. Boots and shoes should be so large as to admit of wearing cork soles.—*Correspondent of Mechanics' Magazine.*

Trade and Genius.—There are geniuses in trade, as well as in war, or the state, or letters; and the reason why this or that man is fortunate, is not to be told. It lies in the man; that is all anybody can tell you about it. See him, and you will know as easily why he succeeds, as, if you see Napoleon, you would comprehend his fortune. In the new objects we recognise the old game, the habit of fronting the fact, and not dealing with it at second-hand.—*Emerson.*

Savings' Banks.—It appears from a parliamentary return just printed, that the number of these valuable institutions in the United Kingdom is 584, of which 481 are in England, 40 in Scotland, 61 in Ireland, and 2 in the islands of the British seas. The number of accounts remaining open is not less than 1,054,663; the total amount owing to depositors is £28,046,139; and the average rate of interest paid to them is £2. 18*s.* 1¾*d.* per cent. The commissioners have granted 6,368 annuities, to the amount of £105,062. The savings' banks are managed by 635 unpaid, and 1,140 paid officers, at a total annual expense of £103,102., which is an average of £175. for each bank. There is a greater number of savings' banks in Yorkshire than in any other county, namely, 36; in Middlesex there are 35; and in Lancashire, 31.

Conversation enriches the understanding, but solitude is the school of genius.

Moths.—If furs or apparel be enclosed in a box with a little oil of turpentine, they will be freed from the larvæ of moths.—*Newspaper.*

Courtesy.—I also observe that the power of diffusing happiness is not the exclusive power of the rich. All are capable of it. The poorest of men can cheer me by his affection, or distress me by his hatred or contempt. Every man is dependent on another. A piece of neglect, even from the lowest and most contemptible of men, is fit to ruffle the serenity of my happiness; and a civil attention, even from the humblest of our kind, carries a most gracious and exhilarating influence along with it. Let me never hear, then, that the poor have nothing in their power. They have it in their power to give or withhold kind and obliging expressions. They have it in their power to give or withhold the smiles of affection and sincerity of a tender attachment. Let not the humble offerings of poverty be disregarded. The man of sentiment knows how to value them; he prizes them as the best deeds of beneficence. They lighten the weary anxieties of this world, and carry him on with a cheerful heart to the end of his journey.—*Dr. Chalmers.*

The English Sunday.—Our continental friends are apt to be very merry on the dulness of an English Sunday. They are welcome to all their mirth, so that we keep all our dulness. It is a blessed pause—a healthful breathing—from the hurry, and scramble, and tumult of working-day life. It is a day to look for—a bit of blue in the distance, let the other six days be never so murky. A bit of Sabbath sunlight, gilding the 'sullen ground' of laborious time.

To the English Sunday—it is our faith—Englishmen owe no little of that sober common sense that makes them strong and great among the nations. In Sabbath quiet is renewed a power that, all unconsciously it may be, manifests itself in the six days' strife. The Sunday pause—the domestic calmness of the Sunday hearth, when the household gods have their benignest influence, is a precious blessing. May it never be scared by the noises that make Vienna so gay and Paris so delightful! Above all, let the six days' slaves of Cockney-land be spared the stunning rap-rap of the postman's knocker. At the Sunday hearth, at least, let all men say with the Athenian, 'Business to-morrow.'—*Punch.*

The Corner.

If we wish to live peaceably with all men we should first, be careful to avoid all occasions of strife. Secondly, if quarrels arise, to bridle our tongues. Thirdly, to suffer patiently when we are wronged. Fourthly, immediately to offer up fervent prayer and thus to quench the sparks of fire before they break out into a flame. This is the easiest and the only method to prevent great troubles, and lead a peaceful, happy life; for anger carries in itself uneasiness, and love a sweet satisfaction.—*Bogatzky.*

A CHAPTER ABOUT TEA.

The use of tea as an article of diet was known in China many hundreds of years before other parts of the world became acquainted with it. The earliest mention of the plant occurs in a narrative of travels by Soliman, an Arabian merchant, who visited the East about the year 850 ; he notices the liquid decoction as the ordinary beverage of the Chinese. After this period it appears to have been no more heard of until the Jesuit missionaries went to China, towards the middle of the sixteenth century. In 1633, Olearius, a German philosopher, described it as 'a black water' of bitter taste ; and six years later, a Russian ambassador in India refused to receive a present of tea from the Great Mogul, it being a 'commodity for which he had no use.' The date of its introduction into England is uncertain, but it was probably about this time, for Oliver Cromwell's tea-pot is said to be still existing in some antiquary's museum, presumptive evidence that the Protector had tasted tea. Some accounts state that the Dutch having previously imported it into Holland, our earliest supplies were obtained from them. However, we find that a law was passed in 1660, laying a duty of eightpence a gallon on all liquid tea sold at coffee-houses in London ; and in Pepy's Diary, Sept. 1661, the quaint old fellow tells us—'I sent for a cup of tea (a China drink), of which I had never drunk before,' a proof that the beverage was then sold. In 1664, the East India Company purchased thirty-four ounces of tea to be given as a present to Charles II. Two or three years later they sent out an order for 100 pounds of 'tay ;' and although the retail price was then sixty shillings a pound, the article grew into favour, and in 1678, the Company's imports were 4713 pounds. From this date to 1700, the duties were about twenty-four shillings the pound ; in 1747, a reduction took place ; in 1784, the duty being one shilling, five million pounds of tea were consumed ; in 1795, this quantity had increased to twenty millions, notwithstanding several pamphlets which had been written against the new beverage. Then came an increase of duty, which went on until it was ninety-six per cent. on some sorts, and 100 per cent. on others. The Company's charter was abrogated in 1834, since when the duties have been 2s. 2¼d. on all importations. The total quantity of tea now brought to this country is from fifty to sixty millions of pounds annually, the duty on which amounts to nearly £4,000,000. Thus in less than two hundred years, from so small a beginning, has grown up one of our most extensive and lucrative branches of commerce.

The Chinese name for tea is *tcha*, *cha*, or *tha*, whence the botanical term *thea*, and the popular term *tea*. The plant itself is of the Camellia tribe, of which there are numerous species, but only a few that produce the required sort of leaves. It is an evergreen, and grows from five to six feet high, with shining dark green leaves, somewhat resembling those of the sweet-briar. The flowers are white, and not much unlike the wild roses of our hedge-rows ; these are followed by pods which when ripe contain from two to three seeds. The tree is cultivated over great part of China ; that which grows on the slopes of hills is said to be the best. The green tea plants are more hardy than the black ; snow does not kill them ; they will grow with slight protection in the open air in this country ; while the black need much attention and shelter. The culture of tea plants is not difficult ; they are raised from seeds, dropped into holes after the ground is prepared, in November and December, about five inches deep and four feet apart ; several seeds to each hole. A cluster springs up, which after the rains set in, forms a thick bush requiring no further care than to be kept clear of weeds, and in their third year the first crop of leaves is taken. In some places the plants are never pruned ; in others they are cut after the seventh year to make them yield a greater quantity of leaves which grow most abundantly on the young shoots. The first gathering of leaves takes place in March or May, according to the climate of the district in which the plantation is situated, and two others follow at intervals of about two months ; occasionally, however, the third crop is not taken, so as to avoid injuring the trees, besides which the late leaves are coarse in quality and flavour. For green tea, the fleshy part of the leaf is mostly gathered; black tea has more stalk and woody fibre, which will account for its lower value. Where the practice of collecting the leaf-buds, or leaves while very young, is long pursued, the plantation soon perishes, because it is only by full development of the leaves that proper sustenance can be derived from the sap.

Most of the little occupiers in China have a patch of tea, which they cultivate themselves, and in the plucking season a lively scene is created over the plains and hill-slopes, as all hands turn out to the busy task of stripping the trees. Some of the tea-farms are from five to six acres. After gathering, the leaves are exposed for a short time to the sun or air, and are then dried in long low buildings in flat iron pans placed over a furnace. The worker flings a handful of the leaves into one of the pans, shifting and turning them quickly to prevent scorching; after three or four minutes roasting, he throws them into mats or baskets, when they are carried to another part of the building, rolled up by hand while yet warm and soft, and then cooled. The rolling is done on bamboo tables, the workman using both hands, much in the same way as bakers while preparing dough. Some qualities of tea are roasted and rolled twice; others, as many as five or six times, but care must be taken not to injure the flavour. Two-thirds of the weight is said to be lost in the drying, so that three pounds of leaves give but one pound of marketable tea. It is the roasting which brings out the peculiar flavour of the tea, similarly to what has been described of coffee and chocolate, as the leaves in their natural state are almost tasteless. As is well known, there are many different flavours, some of them are due to the admixture of certain fragrant flowers cultivated by the Chinese for the purpose, or of vegetable oils.

The very finest kinds of tea, on which the Chinese greatly pride themselves, never reach Europe; the damp and changes of temperature attendant on a sea-voyage completely spoil them. Particular care is taken in the gathering of the leaves for these sorts: the pickers are trained to the work when very young, and for two or three weeks before the harvest they are forbidden to eat certain kinds of food which in China are considered unclean, so that they shall not injure the leaves by foul breath or any other defilement; besides which they are made to wear gloves, and to bathe or wash their bodies several times daily. The leaves also must be gathered at a certain period of their growth, and roasted on the same day, as a delay in either case causes a deterioration in their exquisite flavour. This tea is used only by the greatest personages in China; who keep it in small canisters or in jars of the rarest porcelain, and send it to one another as presents. It is extremely dear, and is so slightly roasted, as to require the most careful preservation from damp. A notion prevails among the Chinese that a porcelain jar of the best quality improves the flavour of the tea kept in it.

When the tea is sufficiently rolled and dried, the little cultivators alluded to above, pack it in chests or baskets in readiness for sale. A man puts on a pair of clean shoes made of straw or cloth, and treads it down closely and evenly into the cases. At the time for selling the teas, the city merchants go out to the country districts, attended by coolies or porters laden with copper money, and take up their quarters at the numerous taverns. The tea-growers then bring down their produce slung to a bamboo pole on their shoulder, and the bargaining commences, and gives rise to an animated scene, for the growers are very independent in their dealings and go from one buyer to another until a suitable price is offered. Then comes a change of burdens: the coolies carry away the tea, while the seller returns to his home with a load of copper money swinging on his pole.

Since the opening of trade with China, it has been found that although two sorts of plants are cultivated, yet both kinds can be made from the same tree. The leaves of the green are transformed into black for the foreign market, and what is worse, old and damaged black tea is converted into fine 'bloom' green, to suit the eyes and palate of 'outside barbarians,' as the Chinese designate Europeans and Americans. Mr. Fortune states, in his 'Wanderings in China,' that this latter process may be seen any day during the season, near Canton. The people of the United States consume much more green tea in proportion than the English, and to meet the large demand, the Chinese, who are clever imitators, vamp up the coarse refuse bohea in any quantity to please their customers. Sir John Davis, who once witnessed the process, tells us that the tea, coarse green or black, or both, is placed in iron pans over a fire as before described; when warm turmeric is stirred in, which dyes the whole yellow, and afterwards Prussian blue and gypsum are added until all the shades of green are obtained, from twankay to the most delicate hyson. The gypsum (plaster of Paris) and turmeric are said to be harmless, but Prussian blue is a poison, being composed of prussic acid and iron. The quantity, however, is but small, otherwise the drinking of green tea would be highly injurious, if not fatal. It is worthy of notice, that the Chinese never use any of these dyed teas themselves, but this is not the whole of their adulterations; they mix millions of pounds of other leaves, chiefly those of plum and apple trees, with the tea which they send away. Thus British dealers are not the only sophisticators. Among the adulterations practised in this country, is that of re-dying waste tea leaves, and after mixing them with sloe and ash leaves and raisin stalks chopped up, to sell them again as 'genuine congou,' or 'fine rough-flavoured souchong.' Small dealers, in low crowded neighbourhoods are notorious for their frauds in this respect; cheap tea is dear at any price, and the best way to avoid being cheated is to purchase at a respectable shop where *good* articles are sold.

Bohea (Bou-y) is the name of a district in China, where most kinds of black tea are grown; the sort which we distinguish by this name is called Ta-cha by the Chinese; it is made from the last crop of leaves and has a coarse woody taste. Pekoe, is gathered early, when the young leaf-buds are covered with a silky down, whence the native name pak-ho, which means 'white down.' 'Black-leaved pekoe' is made from the same leaves when a few days older: Souchong, when they are in their prime, and thick and fleshy: Congou, when they are coarse and rough; and last, bohea. Twankay is the bohea of green tea; three-fourths of the green brought to England is of this sort. 'Hyson skin,' is the siftings and refuse of better sorts, called by the Chinese 'skin-tea' to express its inferior quality. 'Hyson-pekoe' the youngest buds slightly roasted, is one of the sorts never sent out of China. Hyson in the original language means 'flourishing spring;' each leaf being rolled up separately, it is high priced and difficult to obtain. Gunpowder is the best selected and most carefully rolled hyson; the Chinese call it 'pearl tea.'

The more tea is roasted, the more are its stimulating qualities weakened; for which reason black tea is more wholesome than green, as the latter undergoes comparatively little roasting. If taken when first prepared, the exciting effects of the decoction are said to be very powerful; the mind of the drinker is agitated, and a trembling seizes his limbs; it is therefore recommended that tea should not be used until a year after its manufacture.

Many of the injurious consequences attributed to the drinking of tea, are due solely to the adulterations; if we could always obtain tea perfectly pure there would be but few complaints of injury. 'Tea,' says a late writer, 'has been preposterously praised by some persons, and unjustly accused by others, as being productive of numerous diseases: above all it has been charged with causing an increase of nervous diseases. It would perhaps be more just to attribute the increase of such complaints to the more complicated state of our social relations, arising from an augmented population, and an advance in luxury, with the more frequent infringement of the natural laws, particularly turning night into day, and not seldom day into night, as is the practice of the votaries of fashion. That the universal employment of tea has displaced some other kinds of food is certain, but if a diminution in the number of inflammatory diseases be one of the consequences, it is much to its credit, as however distressing nervous diseases may be, they are by no means so fatal as those of an inflammatory kind. That tea should not suit all ages or all constitutions, is not remarkable. It is less suited for young children than for adults; indeed, for very young children, it is extremely improper, producing, like all narcotics, a morbid state of the brain and nervous system: it is also unsuited for those of an irritable nature; such persons can ill bear much liquid of any kind, particularly in the evening, and prosper best on a very dry diet.' Dr. Lettsom, says 'Tea ought by no means to be the common diet of boarding-schools; if it be allowed sometimes as a treat, they should be at the same time informed that the constant use of it would be injurious to their health, strength, and constitution.'

Weak tea is one of the best drinks that can be given to patients when first attacked by fever or inflammation; it is good also for persons of a full and sanguine habit, and for those subject to gout and rheumatism; the latter, however, should take no sugar with it and but very little milk: disease of the heart is also said to be quieted by the soothing effects of tea. Very strong tea is an excellent antidote to some kinds of poison, particularly arsenic and tartarized antimony; it is also available against opium, but should not be drunk until after the drug has been pumped out of the stomach. Some people drink strong green tea to relieve the head-ache, but, as it has been wisely observed, a better way would be 'to avoid the causes of such head-aches.' In ordinary cases, it is recommended that tea 'should not be taken until about four hours after any solid meal.'

Speaking of the apparent adaptation of tea to human wants, Liebig observes:—'We shall never certainly be able to discover how men were led to the use of the hot infusion of the leaves of a certain shrub (tea), or of a decoction of certain roasted seeds (coffee). Some cause there must be which would explain how the practice has become a necessary of life to whole nations. But it is still more remarkable that the beneficial effects of both plants on the health must be ascribed to one and the same substance, the presence of which in two vegetables belonging to natural families, and the produce of different quarters of the globe, could hardly have presented itself to the boldest imagination. Yet recent researches have shewn, in such a manner as to exclude all doubt, that caffeine and theine are, in all respects identical.' [*Caffeine* is the principle, or sort of oily matter which chemists extract from coffee; *theine* is that obtained from tea. It is these which give the flavour: as Liebig says, the nature of both is the same.]

There are some people who take but little exercise, and others who eat but little of nourishing or azotised food, and thus it is, according to Liebig's theory, that tea or coffee are beneficial; they contain elements similar to those of which bile is constituted, and thus tend to keep healthy those whose occupation is not an active one, or whose poverty compels them to a poor diet. 'Tea and coffee were originally met with among nations whose diet is chiefly vegetable. . . . These facts show in what way tea proves to the poor a substitute for animal food, and why females and literary persons who take little exercise manifest such partiality for it. They also explain why the attempts, and they have been numerous, to find among other plants a substitute for tea have invariably failed of success.'

The cultivation of tea has of late years been introduced into India, where large plantations now exist at the foot of the Himalaya mountains. Nearly 3000 pounds were produced last year, and before long we may expect larger supplies from the same quarter. An attempt is also now being made to cultivate the plant in South Carolina, with a reasonable prospect of success; should the expectations be realized, tea may some day be an important item in the foreign trade of the United States. [Directions for making 'A good cup of Tea' may be found *Fam. Econ.* p. 70, vol. ii.]

A HOUSEKEEPER'S TRIALS.

[The following amusing account of an American lady's experience in housekeeping, contrasts curiously enough in many respects, with the state of things in our own country. It is extracted from a little work, called the *May-Flower*, published at New York.]

I HAVE a detail of very homely grievances to present, but such as they are, many a heart will feel them to be heavy—*the trials of a housekeeper.*

'Poh!' says one of the lords of creation, taking his cigar out of his mouth, and twirling it between his two first fingers, 'what a fuss these women do make of this simple matter of *managing a family!* I can't see, for my life, how there is anything so extraordinary to be done in this matter of housekeeping: only three meals a day to be got and cleared off, and it really seems to take up the whole of their mind from morning till night. *I* could keep house without so much of a flurry I know.'

Now, prithee, good brother, listen to my story, and see how much you know about it. I came to this enlightened West about a year since, and was duly established in a comfortable country residence within a mile and a-half of the city, and there commenced the enjoyment of domestic felicity. I had been married about three months, and had been previously *in love* in the most approved romantic way, with all the proprieties of moonlight walks, serenades, sentimental billet-doux, and everlasting attachment. After having been allowed, as I said, about three months to get over this sort of thing, and to prepare for realities, I was located for life as aforesaid. My family consisted of myself and husband, a female friend as a visitor, and two brothers of my good man, who were engaged with him in business.

I pass over the two or three first days spent in that process of hammering boxes, breaking crockery, knocking things down and picking them up again, which is commonly called getting to housekeeping. As usual, carpets were sewed and stretched, laid down and taken up to be sewed over; things were *re*formed, *trans*formed, and *con*formed, till at last a settled order began to appear. But now came up the great point of all. During our confusion, we had cooked and eaten our meals in a very miscellaneous and pastoral manner, eating now from the top of a barrel, and now from a fire-board laid on two chairs, and drinking, some from tea-cups, and some from saucers, and some from tumblers, and some from a pitcher big enough to be drowned in, and sleeping, some on sofas, and some on straggling beds and mattresses, thrown down here and there, wherever there was room. All these pleasant barbarities were now at an end: the house was in order; the dishes put up in their places; three regular meals were to be administered in one day, all in an orderly, civilised form; beds were to be made; rooms swept and dusted; dishes washed; knives scoured, and all the *et cetera* to be attended to. Now for getting '*help*,' as Mrs. Trollope says; and where and how were we to get it? We knew very few persons in the city, and how were we to accomplish the matter? At length the 'house of *employment*' was mentioned, and my husband was dispatched thither regularly every day for a week, while I, in the meantime, was very nearly *dispatched* by the abundance of work at home. At length, one evening, as I was sitting completely exhausted, thinking of resorting to the last feminine expedient for supporting life, viz., a *good fit of crying*, my husband made his appearance, with a most triumphant air, at the door: 'There, Margaret, I have got you a couple at last—cook and chambermaid!' So saying, he flourished open the door, and gave to my view the picture of a little, dry, snuffy-looking old woman, and a great staring Dutch girl in a green bonnet and red ribbons—mouth wide open, and hands and feet that would have made a Greek sculptor open *his* mouth too. I addressed forthwith a few words of encouragement to each of this cultivated-looking couple, and proceeded to ask their names, and forthwith the old woman began to snuffle and to wipe her face with what was left of an old silk pocket-handkerchief preparatory to speaking, while the young lady opened her mouth wider, and looked around with a frightened air, as if meditating an escape. After some preliminaries, however, I found out that my old woman was Mrs. Tibbins, and my Hebe's name was *Kotterin;* also that she knew much more Dutch than English, and not any too much of either. The old lady was the cook. I ventured a few inquiries: 'Had she ever cooked?' 'Yes, ma'am, sartin; she had lived at two or three places in the city.' 'I suspect, my dear,' said my husband, confidently, 'that she is an experienced cook, and so your troubles are over;' and he went to reading his newspaper.

I said no more, but determined to wait till morning. The breakfast, to be sure, did not do much honour to the talents of my official; but it was the first time, and the place was new to her. After breakfast was cleared away, I proceeded to give directions for dinner. It was merely a plain joint of meat, I said, to be roasted in the tin oven. The *experienced cook* looked at me with a stare of entire vacuity. 'The tin oven,' I repeated, 'stands there,' pointing to it.

She walked up to it, and touched it with such an appearance of suspicion as if it had been an electrical battery, and then looked round at me with a look of such helpless ignorance that my soul was moved. 'I never see one of them things before,' said she.

Never saw a tin oven!' I exclaimed. 'I thought you said you had cooked in two or three families.'

'They does not have such things as them, though,' rejoined my old lady.

Nothing was to be done, of course, but to instruct her into the philosophy of the case; and, having spitted the joint, and given numberless directions, I walked off to my room to superintend the operations of Kotterin, to whom I had committed the making of my bed and the sweeping of my room, it never having come into my head that there *could be* a wrong way of making a bed; and to this day it is a marvel to me how any one could arrange pillows and quilts to make such a nondescript appearance as mine now presented. One glance showed me that Kotterin also was '*just caught*,' and that I had as much to do in her department as in that of my old lady. Just then the door-bell rang! 'Oh, there is the door-bell!' I exclaimed; 'run, Kotterin, and show them into the parlour.'

Kotterin started to run, as directed, and then stopped, and stood looking round on all the doors, and on me with a wofully puzzled air. 'The street-door,' said I, pointing towards the entry. Kotterin blundered into the entry, and stood gazing with a look of stupid wonder at the bell ringing without hands, while I went to the door and let in the company before she could be fairly made to understand the connection between the ringing and the phenomenon of admission.

As dinner-time approached, I sent word into the kitchen to have it set on; but, recollecting the state of the heads of department there, I soon followed my own orders. I found the tin oven standing out in the middle of the kitchen, and my cook seated *a la Turk* in front of it, contemplating the roast meat with full as puzzled an air as in the morning. I once more explained the mystery of taking it off, and assisted her to get it on to the platter, though somewhat cooled by having been so long set out for inspection. I was standing holding the spit in my hands, when Kotterin, who had heard the door-bell ring, and was determined this time to be in season, ran into the hall, and soon returning, opened the kitchen-door, and politely ushered in three or four fashionable-looking ladies, exclaiming, 'Here she is.' As these were strangers from the city, who had come to make their first call, this introduction was far from proving an eligible one. The look of thunder-struck astonishment with which I greeted their first appearance, as I stood brandishing the spit, and the terrified snuffling and staring of poor Mrs. Tibbins, who again had recourse to her old pocket-handkerchief, almost entirely vanquished their gravity, and it was evident that they were on the point of a broad laugh; so, recovering my self-possession, I apologised, and led the way to the parlour.

Let these few incidents be a specimen of the four weeks that I spent with these 'helps,' during which time I did almost as much work, with twice as much anxiety, as when there was nobody there, and yet everything went wrong besides. The young gentlemen complained of the patches of starch grimed to their collars, and the streaks of black coal ironed into their dickeys, while one week every pocket-handkerchief in the house was starched so stiff that you might as well have carried an earthen plate in your pocket; the tumblers looked muddy; the plates were never washed clean or wiped dry unless I attended to each one; and as to eating and drinking, we experienced a variety that we had not before considered possible.

At length the old woman vanished from the stage, and was succeeded by a knowing, active, capable damsel, with a temper like a steel-trap, who remained with me just one week, and then went off in a fit of spite. To her succeeded a rosy, good-natured, merry lass, who broke the crockery, burned the dinner, tore the clothes in ironing, and knocked down everything that stood in her way about the house, without at all discomposing herself about the matter. One night she took the stopper from a barrel of molasses, and came singing off up stairs, while the molasses ran soberly out into the cellar bottom all night, till by morning it was in a state of *universal emancipation.* Having done this, and also dispatched an entire set of tea-things by letting the waiter fall, she one day made her disappearance. Then, for a wonder, there fell to my lot a tidy, efficiently-trained English girl; pretty, and genteel, and neat, and knowing how to do everything, and with the sweetest temper in the world. 'Now,' said I to myself, 'I shall *rest* from my labours.' Everything about the house began to go right, and looked as clean and genteel as Mary's own pretty self. But, alas! this period of repose was interrupted by the vision of a clever, trim-looking young man, who for some weeks could be heard scraping his boots at the kitchen door every Sunday night; and at last Miss Mary, with some smiling and blushing, gave me to understand that she must leave in two weeks.

'Why, Mary,' said I, feeling a little mischievous, 'don't you like the place?'

'Oh, yes, ma'am.'

'Then why do you look for another?'

'I am not going to another place.'

'What, Mary, are you going to learn a trade?'

'No, ma'am.'

'Why, then, what do you mean to do?'

'I expect to keep house *myself*, ma'am,' said she, laughing and blushing.'

'Oh ho!' said I, 'that is it;' and so, in two weeks, I lost the best little girl in the world: peace to her memory!

After this came an interregnum, which put me in mind of the chapter in Chronicles that I used to read with great delight when a child, where Basha, and Elah, and Tibni, and Zimri, and Omri, one after the other, came on to the throne of Israel, all in the compass of half a-dozen verses. We had one old woman who stayed a week, and went away with the misery in her tooth; one *young* woman, who ran away and got married; one cook, who came at night and went off before light in the morning; one very clever girl, who stayed a month, and then went away because her mother was sick; another, who stayed six weeks, and was taken with the fever herself; and during all this time, who can speak the damage and destruction wrought in the domestic paraphernalia by passing through these multiplied hands?

What shall we do? Shall we go for slavery, or shall we give up houses, have no furniture to take care of, keep merely a bag of meal, a porridge-pot, and a pudding-stick, and sit in our tent-door in real patriarchal independence? What shall we do?

GOOD BREEDING.

PART I.

There are two kinds of politeness. The first, and most valuable is that which pervades the soul, and which is shown by unmistakeable and constant acts of good-will and kindness to all within its influence, 'whether they be friends, strangers, or enemies.' The second kind is that which governs the habits, and regulates the deportment, irrespective of inward thoughts and emotions. It is of great use in the world, just because it softens down the angularities of human nature; induces attention to the proprieties of life; and thus gives double effect to the goodly feelings and intentions of the heart. To distinguish this excellent qualification from the true politeness, from which, by the way, it should never be severed, it is known by the name of Good Breeding.

It would be well if, in *every* class of society, the rules of good breeding were studied with some degree of care, and followed with some degree of attention. For, though it is certain that persons of good feeling will not intentionally offend by uncouth and unseemly habits, and though, also, such persons are not in so great danger of thus offending as the selfish and morose, yet it is equally certain that, for want of knowledge, observation, or due care—perhaps for want of all these—a great number of people must be set down as ill-bred, or, at any rate, as not well-bred.

Happily, though there are many conventionalisms in what is called, 'good society,' which serve no purpose, apparently, but that of trammelling the members of that society by intricate and unnecessary forms, the common rules of good breeding are natural and simple, commending themselves to the good sense of all. Thus, to deserve and maintain a character for being well-bred, and truly polite in outward actions, it is not absolutely needful to be fashionable, and not at all needful to be insincere.

At almost all times, and in almost all places, good breeding may be shown; and we think a good service will be done by pointing out a few plain and simple instances in which it stands opposed to habits and manners, which though improper and disagreeable, are not very uncommon.

In the familiar intercourse of society, a well-bred *man* will be known by the delicacy and deference with which he behaves towards females. That man would deservedly be looked upon as very deficient in proper respect and feeling, who should take any physical advantage of one of the weaker sex, or offer any personal slight towards her. Woman looks, and properly looks for protection to man. It is the province of the husband to shield the wife from injury; of the father to protect the daughter; the brother has the same duty to perform towards the sister; and, in general, every man should, in this sense, be the champion and the lover of every woman. Not only should he be ready to protect, but desirous to please, and willing to sacrifice much of his own personal ease and comfort, if, by doing so, he can increase those of any female in whose company he may find himself. Putting these principles into practice, a well-bred man, in his own house, will be kind and respectful in his behaviour to every female of the family. He will not use towards them harsh language even if called upon to express dissatisfaction with their conduct. In conversation, he will abstain from every allusion which would put modesty to the blush. He will, as much as is in his power, lighten their labours by cheerful and voluntary assistance. He will yield to them every little advantage which may occur in the regular routine of domestic life:—the most comfortable seat, if there be a difference; the warmest position by the winter's fireside; the nicest slice from the family joint, and so on.

If walking with a female relative or friend, a well-bred man will take the outer side of the pavement, not only because the wall-side is the most honourable side of a public walk, but also because it is generally the farthest point from danger in the street. If walking alone, he will be ready to offer assistance to any female whom he may see exposed to real peril from any source. Courtesy and manly courage will both incite him to this line of conduct. In general, this is a point of honour which almost all men are proud to achieve. It has frequently happened, that even where the savage passions of men have been excited, and when mobs have been in actual conflict, women have been gallantly escorted through the sanguinary crowd unharmed, and their presence has even been a protection to their protectors. This is as it should be; and such incidents have shown in a striking manner, not only the excellency of good breeding, but have also brought it out when and where it was least to be expected.

In a public assembly of any kind, a well-bred man will pay regard to the feelings and wishes of the females by whom he is surrounded. He will not secure the best seat for himself, and leave the women folk to take care of themselves. He will not be seated at all, if the meeting be crowded, and a single female appear unaccommodated.

On the other hand, a well-bred *woman* will not demand as a right what she may have a claim to expect from the politeness of the other sex, nor show dissatisfaction and resentment if she fancies herself neglected. For want of good breeding some females are exorbitant in their expectations, and appear unthankful even when every thing is done which true politeness demands. Young women should guard against this unamiable defect.

In streets and all public walks, a well-bred person will be easily distinguished from another who sets at defiance the rules of good breeding. He will not, whatever be his station, hinder and annoy his fellow pedestrians, by loitering or standing still in the middle of the footway. He will, if walking in company, abstain from making impertinent remarks on those he meets; he will even be careful not to appear indelicately to notice them. He will not take 'the crown of the causeway' to himself, but readily fall in with the convenient custom which necessity has provided, and walk on the right side of the path, leaving the left side free for those who are walking in the opposite direction. Any departure from these plain rules of good breeding is downright rudeness and insult; or, at all events, it betrays great ignorance or disregard of propriety. And yet, how often are they departed from! It is by no means uncommon, especially in country places, for groups of working-men to obstruct the pathway upon which they take a fancy to lounge, without any definite object, as far as appears, but that of making rude remarks upon passers-by. But it is not only the labouring classes of society who offend against good breeding in this way; too many others offend in the same, and by stopping to talk in the middle of the pavement put all who pass to great inconvenience.

In no city or town of England are the rules of good breeding, in this respect, so well observed as in the metropolis itself. It is easier and pleasanter to walk in the crowded streets of Cheapside and Fleet-street, amidst thousands of pedestrians, than in many provincial towns, with only here and there a few foot passengers who seem to do all their solitary state admits of, to inconvenience their neighbours.

In the common actions and transactions of life, there is a wide distinction between the well-bred and the ill-bred. If a person of the latter sort be in a superior condition in life, his conduct towards those below him, or dependent upon him, is marked by haughtiness or by unmannerly condescension. In the company of his equals in station and circumstances, an ill-bred man is either captious and quarrelsome, or offensively familiar. He does not consider that,

'The man who hails you Tom or Jack,
And proves by thumps upon your back,
  How he esteems your merit,
Is such a friend, that one had need
Be very much a friend indeed,
  To pardon or to bear it.'

And if a man void of good breeding have to transact business with a superior in wealth or situation, it is more than likely he will be needlessly humble, unintentionally insolent, or, at any rate, miserably embarrassed. On the contrary, a well-bred person will instinctively avoid all these errors. 'To inferiors, he will speak kindly and considerately, so as to relieve them from any feeling of being beneath him in circumstances. To equals, he will be plain, unaffected, and courteous. To superiors, he will know how to show becoming respect, without descending to subserviency or meanness. In short, he will act a manly, inoffensive, and agreeable part, in all the situations in life in which he may be placed.'

THE ERRING.

THINK kindly of the erring!
  Ye know not of the power
With which the dark temptation came,
  In some unguarded hour.
Ye may not know how earnestly
  They struggled, or how well,
Until the hour of weakness came,
  And sadly thus they fell.

Think kindly of the erring!
  Oh! do not thou forget,
However darkly stained by sin,
  He is thy brother yet,
Heir of the self-same heritage,
  Child of the self-same God;
He hath but stumbled in the path
  Thou hast in weakness trod.

Speak gently of the erring!
  For is it not enough
That innocence and peace are gone,
  Without thy censure rough?
It sure must be a weary lot
  The sin-crushed heart to bear;
And they who have a happier lot
  Their chidings well may spare.

Speak kindly to the erring!
  And thou mayst lead them back,
With holy words and tones of love,
  From misery's thorny track.
Forget not thou hast often sinned,
  And sinful yet may be—
Deal gently with the erring one,
  As God has dealt with thee!

BREAKING A CHILD'S WILL.

The commonest mistake is to indulge the child's self-will, as the easiest course at the moment. Immediate peace and quiet are sought by giving the child whatever it clamours for, and letting it do whatever it likes its own way. We need not waste words on this tremendous mistake. Everybody knows what a spoiled child is; and nobody pretends to stand up for the method of its education. I think quite as ill of the opposite mistake of the method which goes by the name of breaking the child's will; a method adopted by some really conscientious parents because they think religion requires it. When I was in America, I knew a gentleman who thought it his first duty to break the wills of his children; and he set about it zealously and early. He was a clergyman, and the president of a University; the study of his life had been the nature and training of the human mind; and the following is the way he chose—misled by a false and cruel religion of Fear—to subdue and destroy the great faculty of Will. An infant (I think) about eleven months old was to be weaned. A piece of bread was offered to the babe, and the babe turned away from it. Its father said it was necessary to break down the rebellious will of every child for once; that, if done early enough, once would suffice; and that it would be right and kind to take this early occasion in the instance of this child. The child was, therefore, to be compelled to eat the bread. A dressmaker in the house saw the process go on through the whole day, and became so dreadfully interested that she could not go away at night till the matter was finished. Of course, the bit of bread became more and more the subject of disgust and then of terror to the infant, the more it was forced upon its attention. Hours of crying, shrieking, and moaning were followed by its being shut up in a closet. It was brought out by candlelight, stretched helpless across the nurse's arms, its voice lost, eyes sunk and staring, its muscles shrunk, its appearance that of a dying child. It was now near midnight. The bit of bread was thrust into the powerless hand; no resistance was offered by the unconscious sufferer; and the victory over the evil powers of the flesh and the devil was declared to be gained. The dressmaker went home bursting with grief and indignation, and told the story; and when the President went abroad the next morning, he found the red brick walls of the university covered with chalk portraits of himself holding up a bit of bread before his babe. The affair made so much noise that he was, after some time, compelled to publish a justification of himself. This justification amounted to what was well understood throughout: that he conscientiously believed it his duty to take an early opportunity to break the child's will, for its own sake. There remained for his readers the old wonder, where he could find in the book of Glad Tidings so cruel a contradiction of that law of love which stands written on every parent's heart.—*Household Education, by Harriet Martineau.*

HANDWRITING AND CHARACTER.

[Our readers have probably seen advertisements in the Newspapers, of persons professing to be able to describe character from an individual's handwriting. We know those who have tried the powers of these modern wizards, with what success we need not say. Their merits are well described in the following paragraphs from *Punch*.]

Fortune-telling has fallen to a discount. Horoscopes are a drug in the market; and even the feeblest-minded-maid-of-all-work is reluctant to part with her pence to see her future husband in a looking-glass. The Vauxhall Merlin can scarcely secure his three-penn'orth of rum to keep the cold out, as he sits in his cave ready to cast nativities at twopence per nativity; but a 'new dodge' has lately been started, which for audacious humbug is quite on a par with all the rest of the impostures that have robbed imbecility of its pence or its pounds. The 'dodge' to which we allude, is an under-taking by sundry advertising experimentalists on public credulity, to tell the character by the handwriting, in return for a certain amount in silver or in postage stamps.

As a test of the value of these written characters, we may mention the fact of an individual having been desirous to test the accuracy of two professors, and having received from each a totally different character, while from one of them, who had been written to twice, there proceeded two characters, totally at variance with each other, of the same applicant. If we may be allowed to take the liberty of reading the character of one of the professors in his handwriting, we should be disposed to give him the benefit of the following:—

'The hand before us is an old hand, or, to use a more appropriate phrase, the writing indicates a knowing hand. We should be disposed to say, that such a hand might claim kindred with light-fingered qualities to a certain extent, and would have a finger in any pie without being at all particular. Perhaps, however, we should be coming nearer to the mark, in our estimate of the character of the professor in this case, if we were to say, that judging from his handwriting, in which he has placed in black and white the proof of his own process being utterly deceptive, he may be said to have no character at all.'

COTTAGE COOKERY.

BY ESTHER COPLEY—FOURTEENTH ARTICLE.

CHARITABLE COOKERY.

Brewis.—A very relishing meal may be bestowed on a hungry family at no great expense, when a piece of beef or a leg of pork is boiling—thus: Cut a very thick upper crust of bread, the staler the better. Put it in the boiling pot full half an hour before the meat is done. It will then be ready to take up just before the meat. It will have swollen and become quite tender, and enriched with the fat and liquor. Take it up with a large slice or wire ladle, and shake on a little pepper. This is a very comfortable meal for aged persons.

Persons who have a side-oven in their kitchen-range, or a brick oven occasionally heated, may bake a cheap and substantial pudding, especially if they have milk at command—thus: Rice or sago, half-a-pound; skim milk, two quarts; dripping, from two ounces to four ounces; all-spice, a tea-spoonful; coarse sugar or treacle, from two ounces to four ounces may be added or omitted at pleasure. It improves the pudding provided it do not curdle the milk. If milk is scarce, one quart will suffice if the grain be previously soaked some hours in one quart of water; or water may be used without any milk. To be put in the oven cold; about two hours will bake it.

A Cheap Bread-Pudding.—Collect together any quantity of bits of bread, both crust and crumb. Pour over them cold water, just enough to cover them, and let them remain all night, or several hours. When ready to bake the pudding, grease a dish with dripping. Put the soaked bread through a colander, which will be barely the work of a minute, and add, according to the quantity of bread, a pint or a quart of skim milk, and one, two, or three eggs, one or two ounces of moist sugar, the same of dripping, and a little all-spice. Less than an hour will bake it. N.B. In making rich puddings, cakes, &c., cooks often use more yolks of eggs than whites. The whites well beaten, may be turned to account in a common pudding.

A Scrap-Pie.—Grease a flat dish, and make a common paste with dripping or the fat that has settled on the liquor of boiled meat; two pounds of flour and three-quarters of a pound of fat will make a large pie. The crust will be greatly improved by the addition of a tea-spoonful of bread-powder, or a little carbonate of ammonia. Having rolled out the crust, spread a thinnish layer carefully over the dish. Fill it with bits of cold meat of any kind that have been collected from the plates (it is a bad way to leave bits on a plate, but where much company is kept, some will do it, and if left, it is a pity good food should be wasted) or trimmed from a joint, or in any other way. Chop them all up together with a little parsley and thyme, and an onion, and season with pepper and salt. If there is not meat enough to fill the dish, cold potatos may be laid at bottom, either mashed or cut in thin slices, or slices of vegetable marrow. A little cold gravy will be an improvement. Moisten the edge-crust that the top when laid on may adhere firmly. Cover and bake. When the top crust looks well done it is enough. This will turn out whole, and is excellent eating, either hot or cold.

Or the same thing may be baked in a deep pie-dish, only lining the sides of the dish with crust, not the bottom. A larger proportion of vegetables may be given—potatos, carrots, and beet, or vegetable marrow, seasoning the same, and more broth or other liquor for gravy.

A Scrap-Pudding.—Make a stiff batter with flour, water and dripping. It would be enriched by using part or all milk instead of water, and by the addition of an egg or a little bread-powder, but will be good with only the first-mentioned ingredients. Grease a deep dish, strew in any bits of meat and cold vegetables ; season with pepper and salt, and a little chopped parsley, thyme, and onions. Pour over the batter, and bake one hour.

Dumplings to Boil in Soup.—To any weight of flour, rub in from one-quarter to one-third the weight of fat. Moisten with cold water, or liquor in which meat or rice has been boiled. Dumplings, the size of a small orange, may boil half an hour, and will help to enrich the soup.

Cheap Barley Broth.—If no other liquor can be had to begin with, set on water, allowing for boiling away, one-third part more than the quantity required. Suppose the quantity set on to be six quarts, when it boils, put in six ounces Scotch barley and six or eight large onions, peeled but not sliced, two or three turnips and carrots cut up, may be added or omitted ; let them boil an hour and a-half, then pour out the whole. While the saucepan is hot, put in two or three ounces of good dripping or pot-top (the fat removed from the top of liquor in which meat has been boiled.) When it is melted, stir in a quarter-of-a-pound of oatmeal, which keep rubbing till the whole is mixed with the fat, and has become a smooth paste. Then by little and little return the barley, water and onions, stirring well till the whole boils. And a small handful of parsley, picked but not chopped ; a few marigold blossoms, and a tea-spoonful, or rather more, of ground pepper. Let it boil fifteen or twenty minutes longer, then stir in three tea-spoonsful of salt and pour out. If too thick, a little cold milk stirred in, is a great improvement ; and if this addition be intended, a part of the water may be left out at first.

It should be so observed, that pot-top, though excellent for present use either in paste or for enriching soup, soon turns sour. If required to keep, it should be set before the fire or in an oven to melt, and may then be kept several days, but not so long as the dripping of roast meat.

When calf's feet have been boiled down for jelly, they will still yield a nice picking which may be very acceptable to a sick person, or a family of children. If possible they should be given while hot, as re-warming takes away all their goodness.

When rich beef-tea or mutton-tea has been made by chopping the meat fine, and boiling it fast for twenty-minutes,—which, for an invalid, is the best way of making it, though not the most economical,—the chopped meat may be seasoned and baked in a crust, or used as a mince thus :—For gravy, take a little liquor in which meat or bones have been boiled down ; an onion or two may be boiled whole in it, if time allows. If wanted in haste, chop them small, and put to the liquor fast boiling , in this way they may be done more quickly. Rub up the chopped meat with as much flour or oatmeal as it will carry. Season with pepper and salt ; stir to the boiling gravy, and let it simmer till the gravy thickens, but no longer. A table-spoonful of ketchup or walnut pickle will be a great improvement.

Those who kindly interest themselves in ministering to the comforts of the sick poor, will do well, while preparing for them suitable nourishment, not only steadily to refrain from yielding to the common but most erroneous desire for preparations of a stimulating kind,—such as wine, beer, spirits, or caudle into the composition of which these things enter, but also to endeavour to correct their mistakes on the subject. On some points there is a difference of opinion, but none we believe among well-informed people at the present day as to the impropriety of giving heating food to the sick. There is no doubt that the strong caudle, formerly given to lying-in women, retarded their recovery, and caused great suffering to their infants from the thrush—an infantile disease, much less commom than formerly. Not a few lives of mothers and infants have been sacrificed to heating and improper diet; and yet it only wants to be known that some kind charitable lady will give a pitcher of strong caudle, and she will have almost as many applicants as there are poor women in her neighbourhood in circumstances to put in their claim. It would be well to discourage all such applications, by substituting such articles of diet as are really suitable—simple gruel—milk—biscuits—light pudding—broth—meat, and by endeavouring to convince the patients that their real advantage was consulted in the exchange.

To nursing mothers, not abundantly supplied, there cannot be a more appropriate gift than barley water and milk—nothing that would tend more to recruit their own strength, and to furnish a proper supply for their infants.

Persons who have a large kitchen-garden, often have considerably more of the commoner vegetables than they require for the use of their own family; and such crops as come to maturity all at once, must be either used or left to perish. It is not uncommon to see heads of brocoli running up to flower—dozens of cabbage or lettuce bursting—kidney beans growing old in the pods. These remarks do not apply to articles left to ripen for seed; but this is not generally practised in private gardens. The cause of regret is when they are left entirely to run to waste. Now in every neighbourhood, it may be presumed there is some poor family to whom these things would be acceptable; vegetables with them are not, as with the rich, merely a sort of sauce and embellishment to the table, but are often the chief part of the meal. Some of them have not gardens, or if they have, little variety is cultivated; some grow only potatos, and look upon green vegetables as a luxurious treat. Those who have it in their power to confer a pleasure so cheaply, may be glad to be reminded of the opportunity.

In conclusion, it may be observed that the foregoing instructions are as much intended to set people thinking of new means and methods for themselves, as to point out what is easily practicable.

RECIPES,

AND ANSWERS TO INQUIRERS.

To preserve eggs for Winter use. (H. B.)—The proper time of doing this is early in Spring when the hens lay plentifully, and before they begin to sit. The exact time will vary considerably as the season is cold and backward, or the reverse. But it can seldom be begun much earlier than the middle of March, and should never be attempted later than the middle of April. The eggs intended for preserving should be put under treatment, if possible, the day they are laid. If wanted for boiling, the most simple method is to put them in a saucepan of water boiling, and over the fire, and let them boil barely one minute. Take them out, and let them become perfectly cold before packing. When wanted for use they may be boiled in the usual way, but will be done in rather less time. If required for puddings the following method is preferable: as the eggs are brought in let each be rubbed over with salad oil or melted suet, care being taken that every part is greased. Afterwards pack them closely, yet not one touching another, and all endwise, in lime, wood-ashes, bran, or salt. The lid of the box or head of the cask in which they are packed must be kept closely shut. Eggs may be kept good a long time, by the following contrivance: a shallow box, of any size that may be conveniently lifted, is to be formed of two thin shelves of deal, each surrounded by a rim of one inch deep beside the thickness of the shelf it surrounds. Each of the shelves is to be full of holes capable of receiving one egg, and the holes in the two shelves are to correspond with one another. The shelves are to be joined together as a box, by means of hinges (two pair, if the size be considerable,) at the back, and hook and eye, or lock and key in front. The depth of the box inside should be such as just to keep in the eggs without danger of either crushing or allowing them to slip. The box may be suspended from a ceiling in the manner of a bacon-rack, but it is more convenient to fix it against a wall thus: in the wall fix two bolt staples, and to the box two double bolts to correspond, by double bolts is meant bolts projecting equally, say three or four inches, both above and below the depth of the box, so that either end of the bolts may be inserted in the staples. The whole affair is to be turned daily, or at least every other day, but daily is best. If in addition to this mechanical contrivance the egg-shells were greased over, it would probably be found as effectual a mode of preserving eggs as any hitherto devised. But whatever mode be adopted, it is essential to put it in operation without delay. Even in one day that shrinking has commenced which the grease is intended to prevent, and which, if once commenced admits air and causes decay. The place for keeping eggs must be cool and dry.

Another Method—much practised in Oxford, where a large supply of eggs is constantly required for the use of the collegians.—Quick lime, one bushel; common salt, two and a-half pounds; cream of tartar, one pound; mix these ingredients together. Then add as much water as will bring to the consistence of thin batter. Pour a layer of this enough to cover the bottom of the cask in which the eggs are to be kept. Upon that, a layer of eggs placed sideways. Then enough mixture to cover them. So proceed till all are deposited and covered with the mixture. Care will be requisite in taking them out, and each egg should be washed before boiling. N.B.—This method effectually preserves the eggs for a very long time; and for puddings, cakes, &c., answers exceedingly well. But for table use, though eggs treated thus are often sold at a high price for new laid eggs, they certainly taste of the lime.

To make Brown Soup.—Take a small piece of butter and put it over the fire in a clean frying-pan, (iron); put to it a few spoonsful of wheat or rye meal; stir the whole briskly about with a broad wooden spoon till the butter has disappeared, and the meal is uniformly of a deep brown colour; great care being taken by stirring it continually, to prevent the meal from being burned to the pan. Half an ounce of this boiled in a pint of water, and seasoned with pepper, salt, and vinegar, and eaten with cut bread, makes a palatable and wholesome soup. One ounce of butter sufficient for eight ounces of meal. —*Count Rumford.*

Cheap Soup.—Eight gallons of water, five pounds of pearl barley; boil to the consistency of a thick jelly; season with salt, pepper, vinegar, sweet herbs, and four red herrings, pounded in a mortar. —*Ibid.*

Polishing Paste.—Half-a-pound of mottled soap cut into pieces, mixed with half a-pound of rotten-stone in powder: put them into a saucepan with enough of cold water to cover the mixture, (about three pints); boil slowly till dissolved to a paste.

Cement for mending Broken Vessels. —To half a pint of milk put a sufficient quantity of vinegar in order to curdle it; separate the curd from the whey and mix the whey with the whites of four eggs, beating the whole well together; when mixed add a little quick lime through a sieve until it acquires the consistency of a paste. With this cement broken vessels or cracks can be repaired; it dries quickly, and resists the action of fire and water.

To mend China.—Mix together equal parts of fine glue, white of eggs, and white lead, and with it anoint the edges of the article to be mended; press them together, and when hard and dry scrape off as much of the cement as sticks about the joint. The juice of garlic is another good cement, and leaves no mark where it has been used.

To Cleanse Gold.—Wash the article in warm suds made of delicate soap and water, with ten or fifteen drops of sal-volatile. (The sal-volatile will render the metal brittle. This hint may be used or left at pleasure.)

[*The last four Recipes are from a Correspondent.*]

HINTS ON HEALTH.

Light and sunshine are needful for your health. Get all you can; keep your windows clean. Do not block them up with curtains, plants, or bunches of flowers;—these last poison the air in small rooms.

Fresh air is needful for your health. As often as you can, open all your windows, if only for a short time in bad weather; in fine weather, keep them open, but never sit in draughts. When you get up, open the windows wide, and throw down the bed-clothes, that they may be exposed to fresh air some hours daily before they are made up. Keep your bed-clothes clean; hang them to the fire when you can. Avoid wearing at night what you wear in the day. Hang up your day clothes at night. Except in the severest weather, in small crowded sleeping-rooms, a little opening at the top of the window sash is very important; or you will find one window pane of perforated zinc very useful. You will not catch cold half so easily by breathing pure air at night. Let not the beds be directly under the windows. Sleeping in exhausted air creates a desire for stimulants.

Pure water is needful for your health. Wash your bodies as well as your faces, rubbing them all over with a coarse cloth. If you cannot wash thus every morning, pray do so once a week. Crying and cross children are often pacified by a gentle washing of their little hands and faces—it soothes them. Babies' heads should be washed carefully, every morning, with yellow soap. No scurf should be suffered to remain upon them. Get rid of all slops and dirty water at once, but do not throw them out before your doors; and never suffer dead cabbage leaves or dirt of any kind to remain there;—all these poison the air, and bring fevers. All bad smells are *poison;* never rest with them. Keep your back yards clean. Pig-sties are very injurious; slaughter-houses are equally hurtful: the smells from both excite typhus fever, and cause ill-health. Frederick the Great said that one fever was more fatal to him than seven battles. Disease, and even death, is often the consequence of our own negligence. Wash your rooms and passages at least once a week, use plenty of clean water: but do not let your children stay in them while they are wet, it may bring on croup or inflammation of the chest. If you read your Bibles, which it is earnestly hoped you do, you will find how cleanliness, both as to the person and habitation, was taught to the Jews by God himself; and we read in the 4th chapter of Nehemiah that when they were building their second temple, and defending their lives against their foes, having no time for rest, they contrived to put off their clothes for washing. It is a good old saying, that *Cleanliness is next to Godliness.* See Heb. x. 22.

Wholesome food is needful for your health. Buy the most strengthening. Pieces of fresh beef and mutton go the farthest. Eat plenty of fresh salt with food; it prevents disease. Pray do not let your children waste their half-pence in tarts, cakes, bull's eyes, hardbake, sour fruit, &c. they are very unwholesome, and hurt the digestion. People would often, at twenty years of age, have a nice little sum of money to help them on in the world, if they had put in the savings' bank the money so wasted. Cocoa is cheaper and much more nourishing than *tea.* None of these liquids should be taken *hot*, but lukewarm; when hot they inflame the stomach, and produce indigestion. All kinds of intoxicating drinks are to be avoided, or taken in the utmost moderation. If possible abstain from them altogether. Money saved from drink, will help to educate your children, and make your homes happier.

We are all made to breathe the pure air of heaven, and therefore much illness is caused by being constantly in-doors. This is especially the case with mothers of families, young milliners, ironers, shoemakers, tailors, &c. Let such persons make a point, whenever it is possible, of taking exercise in the *open air* for at least an hour and a-half *daily. Time* would be saved in the long run by the increased energy and strength gained, and by the warding off of disease.

Be sure to get your children vaccinated, between the third and sixth month after birth, before teething begins, and when they are in a good state of health for it. This would save a great many lives. On no account give your children laudanum, or any kind of sleeping medicine; numbers are killed by it. Whenever any of you are taken ill, apply *at once* (delays are dangerous) to some well-known medical man. Do not attempt to prescribe for yourselves.

Should it please an *All-wise Providence* to remove any of your friends by death, let not the living occupy the same room with the dead. Attend carefully to the thorough ventilation of the whole house. Use chloride of lime powder and water, for sprinkling the rooms and linen; and bury without needless delay.

HOUSEHOLD ECONOMY.

MAKING THE BEST OF OLD GARMENTS.

'What a wretched-looking family are those Smiths! The poor children almost always go shivering and barefooted, with a few rags hanging on them, altogether insufficient to keep out the cold; and to decency they make no pretension. They now and then have on a garment that seems to have been good for something, but it is all in slits for want of repair. The little girl wears a woman's bonnet bent in all manner of shapes; and the boy's coat drags in the mud; while the frock of a third barely covers the knees for want of a tuck or two being let out.'

'What a respectable appearance Mrs. Brown the schoolmistress makes! With her small salary it is astonishing how she can afford it. She and her family always appear neat and well-dressed, in garments suited to the season and to the work in which they are engaged.'

Such have often been the remarks of casual observers in regard to the very different aspect of two families whose resources are nearly equal: the ragged family is, however, the best off in this respect. On closer inspection the difference is easily accounted for. The Smiths lay out several pounds in the course of a year at the draper's and the shoemaker's, besides which they receive valuable bundles of clothing from charitable neighbours; but for want of good management and care, purchases and gifts alike fail to secure decency and comfort. As to Mrs. Brown, it is little indeed that she has to spare for the purchase of clothing, but that little is laid out to the best advantage. Now and then some of her friends send her old garments, generally with the remark, 'It is scarcely worth sending; but, bad as it is, Mrs. Brown will be sure to turn it to good account for herself or the children.' There are doubtless many persons who might find it to their advantage to take a leaf out of Mrs. Brown's book. Even those who do not, as she, stand in need of the assistance of friends, may be glad of a hint to assist them in turning their own half-worn garments to the best account, either for themselves or others.

In cutting up old garments, it is a great advantage to have a portion of the same material, new. For this reason, when purchasing a new garment, buy a little additional quantity sufficient for repairs, and take care that it is kept for that purpose, and not wasted in any way. It was formerly the custom with all thrifty women, when buying a gown, to buy an extra yard for new-sleeving. To be sure, a gown in those days was a more expensive affair than a gown is now; and people were more concerned to make it last as long as possible. But it should be remembered, that if six gowns can be bought for the money that used to buy four or three, they cannot be made up in the same time if done at home, nor for the same money if put out. Any tolerably handy woman, though she may not choose to venture upon cutting out and making a new dress, may easily repair one, having the old pattern and lining to work by, and the very creases and stitches for a guide. If, by so doing, a gown will wear half as long again, the price of a little over-quantity at first, and the hour or two employed on the work, are certainly well bestowed. The same remark applies to the garments of men. Unless they be bought ready made, the cuttings should be inquired for and carefully preserved for the purpose of repairing. Every working-man's wife should know enough of the art of tailoring to enable her to sew on a button neatly, or to mend any garment of her husband's; and when past service for him, to cut them up for her children. If any new pieces remain they should not be forgotten when the making is set about; and in forming the plan it should be so arranged as to employ them to the best advantage. If there be not enough entirely to new-top the article, the new stuff should be used for those parts where there will be the greatest strain or rubbing, as under the arms of a gown or coat, where also the difference of colour will be least perceptible.

But whether or not there are any new pieces at command, we will suppose that there is a garment to be repaired for a grown person, or cut smaller for a child. If but little mending is required, it is possible that pieces sufficient for the purpose may be taken from the garment itself without at all injuring its appearance or strength. Some parts of the flaps of a coat are double, from the underneath part of which a small piece or two may be obtained. A gown, made a few years since, will afford, from the ample fulness of its sleeves, sufficient to make sleeves the present size, cutting away all that is at all worn, and even pieces that may serve for repairing other parts. In gown-making, too, there is often a piece of facing to a front pocket-hole, which, in case of need, might serve to mend a small hole or two. Perhaps some portion of the fulness of the skirt might be spared for new sleeving or other repairs. These matters should be thought of before the cutting-up begins.

The garment should be well brushed and shaken to free it from dust, and afterwards picked to pieces. But, unless it be so dirty as that the working would be unpleasant, it is better not to wash it till the new one is made up, or at least, till so much as is needful is unpicked. If it is intended to turn the article, of course the whole of the sewing must be undone, and the pieces perfectly separated. In this state all woollen garments should be cleansed. If the entire article is not so dirty as to require washing, grease spots may be removed by rubbing in with the finger a little French chalk powdered, or a little spirits of turpentine. If washing be required, the best method is fully explained, (*Fam. Econ.*, vol. i. p. 91.)

In print dresses, and other materials that do not bear turning, the breadth seams may be saved; but it is better to un-pick both the gathers and the bottom hem, and to press out the creases with a cool iron. It is always an advantage in making up afresh, to vary, if only by a few threads the place of the turnings. If the edge of the bottom is much worn, it will be better instead of unpicking the hem to turn in the edges, and fell them together inside. It is a good plan, also, to sew up the old pocket-holes, and open them in other seams; so bringing the strongest part of the stuff into the part where most strength is required.

The body and sleeves, unless they fit exactly, had better be picked to pieces and re-made. An ill-fitting garment, whether it be too large or too small, never looks well, and soon wears out. Therefore, when the work is in hand, a little extra time is well bestowed to secure its fitting properly, as well as in making the seams and creases fall not exactly where they did before.

These remarks apply to making up a garment in its original size or nearly so; and, generally speaking, it answers best to make a grown person's garment serve for a grown person again. But now supposing that it suits better to cut it up for a child—before cutting the garment, it may be worth considering whether it can be so contrived as to serve for two. For want of thought in this matter, a gown has been hastily cut up for one frock, a great bundle of pieces remaining, almost, but not quite enough for another—or perhaps so wastefully cut, as to be of little use for any purpose. The length of a full-sized gown will be sufficient for two frocks for children from five years old to seven, perhaps requiring a false hem or bit of lining at bottom. The body and sleeves of the gown will at least make the same for one frock, and enough may be taken from the fulness to make the other. Perhaps both may be taken out of the fulness. In that case, the large body will make a spencer for additional warmth when going out of doors. If a frock be required for a taller girl, so that two skirts of the same depth cannot be got from that of the gown, enough may be taken to make one for a very little child, or perhaps a dress for a boy; the waists now being worn very long, a small quantity suffices for the skirt, and pieces can be cut to great advantage. A thrifty woman, with a family of children of all sizes, has been known to contrive three frocks out of one full-sized gown, taking the skirts of two from the depth of the skirt, and from its fulness, one-third or more, from which to make the third skirt, and pieces which together with the gown body, made out the three frock bodies. It is a good way to cut paper patterns of each piece required for body and sleeves, and to lay them on the material before beginning to cut; so as to cut one out of another to the best advantage; and the same may be done with men's woollen garments. Every notable housewife should keep a good paper pattern of trousers, waistcoat, and gaiters for her husband; and of jacket or coat, and trousers for her boys. Then, in case of an old garment coming into her possession, she can find out the best use to which to put it. If well contrived, a pair of man's trousers will cut a pair for a boy free from the worn part; and also a pair of gaiters, or a cap from the pieces above or below; or if neither of these be required, the pieces will serve to repair the trousers as long as they last. Unless it is intended to turn the material, the straight side seam may remain, and the side pockets, but all the rest should be carefully ripped. The paper pattern is then to be spread, the side to the side, and the top to the top. Thus the worn part will be cut away in the extra width, the strongest part of the material will be secured for the new garment, and the whole of the spare length will be left at bottom.

The lining of a well-made waistcoat is very serviceable; it serves as a good pattern for another, and may be new-covered, or cut to a smaller size for a boy. By a little contrivance in this way some women get a happy knack of tailoring.

A full sized shift or chemise will make two smaller ones for a child five years old—thus, pick out the sleeves, take about a quarter of a yard out of the middle from top to bottom, both of the front and back; cut across the middle of these two double halves, so as to divide them into two equal lengths, the upper halves narrower than the lower; join one narrow half to one wide half lengthwise, and the other the same. Thus both the goar seams are saved, and two small shift bodies are formed, half the bottom of each ready hemmed. Perhaps the old sleeves will serve to cut one small pair; or both pairs may be got out of the piece taken from the middle, the thinnest part of which will do to lay under the shoulder parts, if worn, as most likely they are. This supposes two shifts of equal size; but if it be desired to have one larger than the other, it is only allowing rather more than half the length to the bottom, and joining together both the bottom halves for the larger shift, and both the top halves for the smaller. The making up of old linen should be done more slightly than new work; and the thread or cotton had better not be quite so thick as if great strength were required. Linen, however old, is valuable for the use of young infants, being much softer than calico. A full sized shirt-sleeve will cut two shirts for a babe, and though much worn, is worth running up slightly.

A flannel or other petticoat when worn thin in front by the friction of the stay bone, or the pressure of the knees, may be made to last much longer by being bound afresh; and turning it partly round so that the parts which were the sides, fall to the front and back; any actual holes being darned or pieced.

COTTAGE FARMER'S CALENDAR.

BY MARTIN DOYLE—FEBRUARY.

THE FIELD.

Go on with your draining. Spare no pains to collect manure, and let none of the precious liquids from the cattle-sheds or dunghill be washed away by the rains which often fall so copiously during this month. An old water-tight cask, sunk in the ground, will form an excellent substitute for a cistern. Some neat and economical cultivators construct a flagged or tiled gutter, about three feet in height and depth, the whole length of a sheep-house, in which the excrements and droppings from the sheep are received through a wooden grating on which the animals rest. Sometimes, to save litter, the sheep lie on the bare grating, but where litter can be afforded to them, it is mistaken economy to keep them without it, for it is by means of animal excrements that the fermentation and decomposition of litter is properly effected. Putrescent manures (those produced by animal and vegetable substances combined) enrich the soil more than other manures. Guano, bone-dust, and most of those concentrated manures, which under certain circumstances are beneficially applied, stimulate the soil so much, that its exhaustion succeeds. The immediate crop consumes all the elements of food contained in the manuring substances; whereas the durable effects of farm-yard dung abundantly supplied are plainly discernible, not only by the increased amount of that rich vegetable mould termed *humus* (distinguished by the dark colour of the soil) but are experienced in the productiveness of crops succeeding in judicious rotations.

In the southern parts of Great Britain and Ireland, the sowing of horse-beans proceeds during the course of this month, if the land be in a fit state. There are two modes of getting the beans into the ground to be recommended (the broad-cast method pursued in the county of Wexford is altogether to be condemned) viz., by dibbling them according to the Berkshire practice in rows 16 or 18 inches apart, and at distances between the holes of 8 or 9 inches, or by sowing them in the Scotch manner, in drills from 27 to 30 inches asunder. Dibbling is the most economical system for the cottager, who with the assistance of two or three women, can dibble one acre in a day. Put only three or four beans into each hole. Ley (manured) after one plougning, may be advantageously brought into a state of preparation for wheat in the succeeding autumn, by cropping it first with beans.

If your soil be dry and climate mild, you may sow oats towards the end of the month. There is no good reason against your dibbling oats in rows eight inches apart. If you do not dibble you ought to drill the seed: the saving of seed will pay for the labour. As a rule, however, thin sowing is not to be recommended except on land in good condition. On worn-out soil, if you sow corn at all (which you ought not to do) sow thickly, whether in drill or broad-cast.

Keep the live stock warm and well fed, and do not suffer cows to poach the land. If you now have sheep fattened on turnips or other roots, and oil cake, you will obtain a high price for them. There is no difficulty in fattening four successive lots of sheep in the course of the year, either altogether confined in a shed, or partly confined, and partly folded on the field, according to the season and the food. If you are fattening lambs for the market, give them oats, peas or bean meal, and a little oil cake to assist the mother's milk. Until furze (whins, or gorse, they are also called) are in blossom, their young shoots afford an excellent fodder for cows and horses. They should be first bruised in a trough with a wooden pounder, having a bar of sharp iron at its base. They may be mixed with chaff, which will correct their purgative qualities.

Finish your faggoting. Plant osiers and willows in moist situations. The red Huntingdon, or timber sallow, is the best for ornament or shelter, round the cottager's garden, and is useful for many general purposes. The young shoots serve especially for baskets. The green and white Huntingdon is best for hoops. The ground should have been previously dug to a considerable depth, kept clean, and arranged in ridges, for a plantation of osiers. Take cuttings fifteen inches long from two-year-old wood, and stick them in the ground two-thirds of their length, at two feet apart every way.

THE GARDEN.

Remember that the luxuriance of your crops will greatly depend on the depth and completeness of the digging which your ground receives when in its fallow state. In digging a square, open a trench at one side, and shift the earth which you raise from it, in a wheelbarrow, to the opposite side, where it will be wanted to fill up the last trench that will be dug; and loosen the under-soil with the fork before you turn over another spit of earth. By having the land in squares, regular rotations of crops can the more conveniently be raised. Land fresh manured will answer best for cabbages and potatos. Other crops thrive better when the manure has been applied to preceding ones, or fully blended with the soil in the previous season.

In open weather, you may now plant some of the *early* kinds of potatos, such as the walnut-leaved, the ash-leaved, and the early champion. If the soil be loose and dry, plant the sets whole in drills running north and south, two feet apart, on compost or rotten dung, with their crowns uppermost, and at four or five inches apart. In clay soil, ridges are preferable, to secure a dry bed for the sets; by covering the sets and moulding the plants from the furrows, the stagnation of moisture about them is obviated, and an earlier produce may generally be expected in consequence of this mode of planting. Plant Jerusalem artichokes in drills, exactly as potatos are planted for the general crop.

Towards the end of the month, sow the Bishop's pea, or other early kinds, and the smaller sorts of beans, also a little spinach, lettuce and radish seed, provided you are prepared to protect the plants from frost afterwards. Plant out cabbages freely. Plant also garlic and shalots. Seed and labour are too valuable for the mere cottager to risk either. We only note down what *ought* to be sown and planted by him, not what *may* be done by the professional gardener.

VARIETIES.

Mrs. Fry's Rules of Conduct:—

1st. Never lose time; I do not think that lost which is spent in amusements or recreation some time every day; but always be in the habit of being employed.

2nd. Never err the least in truth.

3rd. Never say an ill thing of a person, when I can say a good thing—not only speak charitably, but feel so.

4th. Never indulge in luxuries that are not necessary.

5th. Do all things with consideration; and when my path to act right is most difficult, feel confidence in that Power alone which is able to assist me, and exert my own powers as far as they will go.

Festivities.—No one should begin with a festivity any situation that is meant to last, particularly that is meant to be a trade, a mode of living. Festivities are fit for what is happily concluded: at the commencement, they but waste the force and zeal which should inspire us in the struggle, and support us in a long-continued labour. Of all festivals the marriage-festival seems the most unsuitable: calmness, humility, and silent hope, befit no ceremony more than this.

Mockery.—It implies a want of feeling almost amounting to baseness, to deride any one on account of bodily defects. Every generous man avoids even the slightest allusion to such misfortunes.

Always Right.—Right in one thing becomes a preliminary toward right in everything. The transition is not distant, from the feeling which tells us that we should do harm to no man, to that which will tell us that we should do good to all men.—*Dr. Arnold.*

The calculations of the selfish are always based on the arithmetic of folly.—*Ib.*

Business First, then Pleasure.—A man who is very rich now, was very poor when he was a boy. When asked how he got his riches, he replied, 'My father taught me never to play till all my work for the day was finished, and never spend my money till I had earned it. If I had but half-an-hour's work to do in a day, I must do that the first thing, and in half-an-hour. After this was done, I was then allowed to play; and I could then play with much more pleasure than if I had the thought of an unfinished task before my mind. I early formed the habit of doing everything in its time, and it soon became perfectly easy to do so. It is to this habit that I now owe my present prosperity.' Let every boy who reads this go and do likewise, and he will meet with a similar reward.—*Wright's Casket.*

Reading aloud is conducive to health.

Railway Returns.—The revenue of the railways of the United Kingdom amounts to no less than £12,000,000 annually.

Maternal Love.—The *Dayton* (Ohio) *Journal* relates a thrilling incident, showing the strength of maternal affection:—

The house of Mr. Woddle, in that city, took fire in the absence of Mr. W. and his wife. A little daughter of four or five years of age had been left rocking the cradle, in which lay the babe. The little girl easily escaped, but the infant was left in the burning house. Several persons tried to penetrate and rescue it, but were driven back by the excessive heat. But a woman came rushing to the spot from a neighbour's; she threw water over her clothes, and drew her wet apron hastily over her head, rushed in and returned in a moment—the child in her arms, and safe. It was the mother—of course it was—every mother's heart will tell her that.

The 'Talent' of Intellect.—Of all the 'talents' committed to our stewardship, none will require to be so strictly accounted for as those of intellect. If we neglect the influence we might have acquired over our fellow-men, thus winning them over to think of and practice 'all things lovely and of good report;' it is surely a sin of deeper dye than the misemployment of mere money. The disregard of those intellectual helps we might have bestowed on others, thus extensively benefiting the cause of Christ's religion, one of whose most useful handmaids is mental cultivation, will surely be amongst the most serious sins of omission that may swell our account at the last day.—*Letters to my Unknown Friends.*

The Corner.

A Wife's Prayer for her Husband.—Lord! bless and preserve that dear person whom thou hast chosen to be my husband; let his life be long and blessed, comfortable and holy; and let me also become a great blessing and comfort unto him, a sharer in all his joys, a refreshment in all his sorrows, a meet helper for him in all the accidents and chances of the world; make me amiable for ever in his eyes, and very dear to him. Unite his heart to me in the dearest union of love and holiness, and mine to him in all sweetness, charity, and compliance. Keep from me all ungentleness, all discontentedness, and unreasonableness of passion and humour; and make me humble and obedient, charitable and loving, patient and contented, useful and observant, that we may delight in each other according to Thy blessed word and ordinance, and both of us may rejoice in Thee, having our portion in the love and service of God for ever.—*Basil Montagu.*

NOW AND THEN.

Now is an important word! It means something. It signifies that a certain portion of time is at present within our control. Now is a brief minute in which we may work or waste, do or undo, rise upwards or sink downwards, grow better or grow worse.

Then is also an important word; but its importance is altogether a different sort to that of Now. It relates either to *past* or *future.* It may mean the next hour, day, week, month, or year. It may be close at hand, or a long way off. We may be looking back upon it, or looking forward to it. Perhaps death may overtake us before the Then that we wish for comes.

The difference between these two words may be seen everywhere—in all classes of society. The child punished for a present fault—Now, says, 'I'll be better next time'—Then. The schoolboy finds study irksome, and thinks how pleasant it will be Then, when he shall leave the desk and form, and hard lessons, for what he anticipates as liberty. The apprentice longs for the Then which shall free him from his bonds, when he shall be master instead of servant; he forgets that the discipline and experience of Now, which he dislikes so much, are what he will most prize by-and-by. The young man in the pursuit of his daily avocations, looks forward to the Then, when the one he loves will become his wife, and in his impatience would freely exchange Now for Then. How bright are his hopes! We shall be so happy Then! As though the mere difference of time would effect that which can only be effected by watchfulness over heart and temper. Now is here but for an instant; it has soon gone to join the Then of the past, which can never come back again. The young tradesman starts in business with high expectations; but unforeseen difficulties come upon him. If he know not the value of Now, he comforts himself by saying, 'I need not put myself out of the way; things will come round by-and-by; we shall be better off Then.' But he who would be better off Then, must exert himself Now. The realization of hope depends not on the passing away of a few weeks or months; but on the discipline of heart, mind, and conscience, to which we submit ourselves.

Rich or poor, gentle or simple, high or low, young or old, man or woman, the result is the same. Then is the bright star of hope shining in the distance. Now is too often regarded as a gloomy cloud which hides the star; we endure only for the sake of Then. But Now is our working capital, our stock in trade, the scope of our ability. The beggar says, 'If I do not beg a penny Now, I shall starve to-morrow.' The workman sometimes feels that, if he do not work Now, instead of keeping Saint Monday, he will fare the worse next Saturday. The schoolboy thinks to himself, 'If I do not learn my lesson Now, I shall be flogged before the day is over.' And so with all mankind; the Now, however unwelcome, is got through in some way. What we have to aim at is to make of the present a cheerful and active Now, which shall fit and prepare us for the Then in future, and leave no regrets for the Then of the past.

The latter is an impressive consideration: if we trifle with Now, it upbraids us when we look back upon it as Then.

> "Ah, woful when!
> Ah, for the change 'twixt now and then!"

It is painful and melancholy to have to say, Then I was virtuous and happy, Now I am wanton and miserable. If I had done well Then, I should not be so wretched Now. If I had commanded my temper and inclinations Then, I should not have to deplore loss of friends, station, or character Now. One depends on the other : a bad seal cannot leave a good impression.

Are these reflections of any value ? To us it seems that a very profitable lesson may be learned in Now and Then ; and those who wish to learn it may bear in mind the lines written by Burns :—

> " The present moment is our own,
> The next we never saw."

THE CANVAS BAG.

A TALE.—PART I.

It has often been observed that honesty is the best policy, but it is not so often remembered that they who are honest from policy alone may in reality be dishonest. Honesty is the offspring of moral principle ; where this moral principle exists, right actions will follow, not only without regard to personal advantages, but even in the face of serious disadvantages : a vain man will do what is just in the eyes of the world, from the expectation of praise, an avaricious man from the desire of gain, but an honest man will do it from a sense of right. The following sketch is drawn from humble life, and affords, we think, a useful illustration of honesty in the *purest* meaning and application of the term.

George Smith was the son of industrious parents, who obtained a livelihood as market-gardeners, by cultivating a small patch of ground in the neighbourhood of Leeds : like most other persons, they had their difficulties to contend against, but they were humble Christians, and in the midst of their trials, found that " godliness with contentment is great gain." They had from his very youth earnestly applied themselves to train up their only son " in the way he should go ;" unlike a great many persons in their station of life, and in much higher stations too, who can find time for almost anything else than the religious instruction of their children, these parents allowed nothing to interfere with this important duty ; and yet their little garden was not less properly cared for, nor the market less regularly attended : contrary to what some, who do not understand the arrangement of time, might be disposed to expect. It was not very surprising that, when George grew up to be a man, he was a good man. Christian parents are to be accounted among God's best gifts ; they are far more valuable to the child than riches, and honours, and worldly advantages, though, in truth, there be many who do not seem to think so.

It happened that there lived in the neighbourhood of the Smiths a family named Jones, consisting of a widow and her two daughters ; they were poor, but industrious. The girls, particularly the elder, Mary, were very clever at the needle, and by this means contrived to support themselves and their aged mother. We cannot describe Mary as a beauty, for in fact she was not one ; yet she had quite sufficient charms to captivate George Smith, and her good qualities were such as to make her beloved by her parents also ; but circumstances were adverse to their union. The garden had not been profitable of late : its produce had become much reduced in value, and the market for needlework was so cheapened, that it required the most incessant toil to earn even a scanty livelihood. Added to all this, sickness came among them ; the elder Smith was attacked by a severe and painful disease, which not only prevented him from bearing his share of the garden labour, but caused expenses, which gradually consumed the little means at his disposal.

It will be allowed that this was an anxious time for poor George : while he had any money he would not permit his father to want such necessaries as he could procure ; but the day was fast approaching when his last penny would be gone—it came ; and he was without money. Nourishment was now essential to his father's recovery; but how was it to be obtained? He had not a penny wherewith to purchase it; he bethought him of the furniture of their cottage, and with his mother's approbation, for he did nothing without this, article after article was sold; but this resource was soon exhausted, and bitter destitution seemed at hand.

It was winter, and as little work could be done in the garden, George sought to obtain some other employment, which might enable him to supply the wants that were pressing upon him; but he sought in vain. The times were exceedingly depressed, and every application ended in disappointment. He did not, however, cease his efforts, and sit down in gloomy despondency: on the contrary, each failure only served to show him the necessity for increased exertion. 'God is good,' he would repeatedly say to himself, 'and he will open a way for me in his own time.' He was right: God did open a way for him, though very different from what he looked for.

He was hastening home a little after dark, on the evening of a day spent in a fruitless search for work, and carrying with him a few things for his father's use, which had been procured by pawning a portion of his own wearing apparel. This supply would barely suffice for the next day. When it was gone, he knew not how he should obtain more. His heart was heavy within him, and the future appeared dark as the night that had gathered round him. He had always loved to take a cheerful view of everything, but sorrow and trouble were pressing sore upon him now. It so happened, that, while engaged with his own sad thoughts, he involuntarily left the footpath, and walked in the carriage-road, which was one of considerable traffic. He had but a short distance to go, for his house was not more than a mile from the town; and he had just approached the spot where he must leave the high-road, in order to reach the cottage, when his foot struck something which returned a dull ringing sound. Stooping down to discover the nature of the obstacle, he found, what in the darkness he judged to be a small bag, and which, from its weight and sound when shaken, seemed to contain a quantity of coins. There are many persons, who, under George Smith's circumstances, would have regarded an event of this kind with the utmost joy, and hailed it as a piece of great good fortune. Such, however, was not his feeling: he knew that whatever it contained was not his, and that the accident of finding a treasure in this way gave him no right to appropriate it, even though his wants were infinitely more urgent than they really were. The temptation was very great—temptation is always great when it assails us through the medium of our necessities: hence it is that crime is so often found to be the companion of poverty. What a blessing is true religion, which by implanting right principles in the heart, can fortify us against such danger! George Smith had, when a child, been 'trained up in the way he should go,' and now that he was a man 'he did not depart from it!' As soon as he arrived at home he told his parents of what had occurred, and asked their advice as to how he should act to discover the owner, for whose distress he expressed the most sincere sorrow. That was, in truth, a deeply interesting family council: the sick man lay upon his bed, the only comfortable article of furniture which remained. By his side were his wife and son, the latter of whom held in his hand a canvas bag, the contents of which were sufficient, not only to release them from all their difficulties, but even to make them rich with the mammon of the world, as people in their rank of life might count riches.

'It will, indeed, be a sad moment to the owner when he discovers his loss,' said the invalid; 'perhaps it was his whole fortune; or, perhaps he was only the servant of another, and may lose his employment on account of it; but it shall be safe for him, whoever he may be.'

'Yes,' observed the mother, 'it will be safe here, until the rightful owner claims it; but we must try to find out the person it belongs to: the sooner it is returned, the sooner he will be out of his trouble.'

'By all means,' returned the sick man, 'and I think that if George went down again to the place where he found it, and watched there, he would be likely to meet with the loser: the poor man will be apt to come back the same road to search for it, when he misses his money.'

'That 's a good thought, father,' said George, 'and I will go at once: it is doing as we would be done by.'

'It is, my boy,' replied his father, 'and that is the Christian's duty.'

Such was the resolution of this truly honest family, and the son set off to carry it into effect, without any thought of the uncomfortable part assigned him during a cold and rainy winter night.

The day had advanced when he returned to say that his watching had been to no purpose; many travellers had passed, but no one had stopped to make inquiries, or, indeed, appeared to be in search of any thing lost.

That night the very last portion of food in the house was exhausted, and mother and son knew not where or how to procure more! Destitute as they now were of the means of purchasing any—shall we say that no thought was turned to the canvas bag—that he who said to the Saviour when an hungered, 'command that these stones be made bread,' did not whisper to these afflicted ones that they need not want, when the means of satisfying their necessities was within their power? No! we could not say so: the tempter is too watchful to destroy, too cunning to omit an opportunity so favourable to his worst purposes. The evil thought was whispered; the subtle poison was poured into the ear, but it found no welcome in the heart, for conscience was on her guard, and spurned the act as sin. Yes, these poor destitutes, standing on the brink of starvation themselves, and oppressed with fears on account of him they loved so well, still rejected the golden snare, which, while it promised present relief, brought with it guilt, and woe, the invariable attendant of guilt. How true is that saying, 'resist the devil, and he will flee from you.' *They* resisted, and *he* fled.

THUNDER-STORMS.

THE safest situation during a thunder-storm is the cellar; for when a person is below the surface of the earth, the lightning must strike it before it can reach him, and will, of course, in all probability, be expended on it. Dr. Franklin advises persons apprehensive of lightning to sit in the middle of a room, not under a metal lustre, or any other conductor, and to lay their feet upon another chair. It will be safer still, he adds, to lay two or three beds or mattresses in the middle of the room, and folding them double, to place the chairs upon them. A hammock suspended with silk cords would be an improvement upon this apparatus. Persons in fields should prefer the open parts to the vicinity of trees, &c. The distance of a thunder-storm, and consequently the danger, is not difficult to be estimated. As light travels at the rate of 192,000 miles in a second of time, its effects may be considered as instantaneous within any moderate distance. Sound, on the contrary, is transmitted only at the rate of 1,142 feet, or about 380 yards, in a second. By accurately observing, therefore, the time which intervenes between the flash and the noise of the thunder which follows it, a very near calculation may be made of its distance, and there is no better means of removing apprehensions.

GRAVE-YARDS AND FUNERALS.

IT is often said that custom and familiarity reconcile us to many practices and circumstances which would be shocking to us if we saw them for the first time. We shudder at the idea of eating rats, yet the Chinese eat them; and beetles and other disgusting creatures, are devoured by some African tribes. We should not like to imitate the New Zealanders and American Indians in preserving the heads and scalps of our enemies as trophies of courage. But we don't mind living over a cesspool which sends up continual noxious fumes into our dwellings; we don't mind breathing foul air in which a bird cannot live; we keep bodies in our houses for many days after they are dead, and we bury hundreds of corpses in the midst of our towns, in rank grave-yards, where the earth is fat and putrid with the decaying remains of the dead. Now, if we were quite unused to all these abominations, and were to come among them for the first time, we should say, that the people who could tolerate such nuisances must be a depraved and filthy race. And yet all this exists in England ; and there are hundreds of persons who contend that things are better so than otherwise.

The custom of burying the dead underground has prevailed from the earliest ages ; but, as a rule, graves were always made at a distance from towns, or from human habitations. It seemed most fitting that quiet and retired spots should be chosen as resting-places for the departed. This mode of burial was, however, not universal. The Egyptians, as is well known, embalmed their corpses, and preserved them in huge tombs ; others exposed the dead on platforms until all the flesh had rotted or dried off, leaving only the bare skeleton ; others, again, consumed the bodies with fire, saving the ashes only, thereby avoiding all the evils and inconvenience of other modes of interment.

It is a mistake to suppose that there is any real kindness in bestowing expensive and elaborate care on the dead. It is hard we know to break up human ties and sympathies ; but we love our relatives and friends for the living spirit that animates them, not merely for the flesh and bone, which, when the life is out, must soon cause disgust, and create mischief. The present system of interments, and many of the arrangements therewith connected, are very objectionable, or worse, highly obnoxious, not only in the evils produced, but also because of the heavy and unnecessary expenses so customary at funerals.

An acre of ground will afford room for 136 bodies to be properly buried, and the time required for their perfect decomposition would be from seven to ten years ; but in most of the grave-yards of London nearly twenty times this number are placed under ground every year, so that little time is allowed for decay, and all feeling and decency are outraged by the horrible means taken to make room for additional corpses. Sorrowing relatives who have attended a deceased friend to the tomb, with the assurance that the dust had returned to dust, to remain in undisturbed repose, would be horrified to know that, within a few weeks afterwards, the coffin had been dug up, burnt as firewood, and the body chopped to pieces with instruments contrived for the purpose, and then flung into a hole to be got rid of, or sometimes carted away as rubbish. Children especially were treated in this way. One of the grave-diggers, when examined before a committee, stated, 'I have taken up the children and moved them within a week after they were buried, and placed them in a different spot, not above a foot and a-half deep ; sometimes I have placed them nowhere. It was done by orders. Putting the bodies 'nowhere' meant chopping them up and throwing them into the hole. Another gravedigger testified, 'that the work was so disgusting, that he was obliged to be half-drunk, in order to be able to execute it ; that he took a quartern of gin, a pot of beer, and a pipe of tobacco, and then his blood began to flow.' He said further, 'we used to get a rope, and put it round the bodies' necks, having first taken off the lid of the coffin, and then we dragged them up by the rope ; and sometimes the head would come off, and the trunk would fall down again ; then we used to go down and fix it round the body, and haul it up that way ; and sometimes it was so tight we could not get it off again ; that it has been a regular practice to chop up dead bodies ; that they cut through what came before them, and turned it all out. He has known them cut a body through, leave half in the coffin, and chuck the other half out.' Even where vaults are provided, the abominable practices are just as bad ; a clearing out takes place occasionally, and the decayed materials are carted away at fourpence a load. At times, the long hair of women has been cut off and sold to hair-dressers, and the teeth are torn from the jaws of corpses to supply the dentists. Thus not only do the bodies of the dead give off noxious gases to the injury of the living, but they afford means for their moral and physical degradation. Over-crowded grave-yards in towns are a most fruitful source of disease and annoyance ; and the practice of placing bodies in the vaults of churches or chapels, where hundreds of persons meet to breathe the pestilential atmosphere, is often a cause of death to those who join in public worship. Dr. Copeland stated before a committee of the House of Commons, that he was once called in to attend a gentleman who 'one Sunday went into a dissenting chapel, where the principal part of the hearers, as they died, were buried in the ground or vaults underneath. I found him labouring under symptoms of malignant fever, and on questioning him as to the cause, he said, that on going up the steps to the chapel, he felt a rush of foul air issuing from the grated openings on each side of the steps: the effect upon him was instantaneous; it produced a feeling of sinking, with nausea, and so great debility, that he scarcely could get into the chapel. He remained a short time, and finding this feeling increase, he went out, went home, was obliged to go to bed, and there he remained. He died eight days afterwards; his wife caught the disease, and died in eight days also, having experienced the same symptoms. These two instances illustrate the form of fever arising from those particular causes.'

After reading these facts, the only wise conclusion to be come to is, that burial in towns or populous places should be immediately put a stop to, and never again permitted under any circumstances. The parliamentary committee, which inquired into the subject in 1842, declared that, 'after a long and patient investigation, they could not arrive at any other conclusion than that the nuisance of interments in large towns, and the injury arising to the health of the community from the practice, are fully proved.' Dr. Adam Clarke also speaks on the subject in strong terms:—'No burying-places,' he says, 'should be tolerated within cities or towns, much less in or about churches and chapels. The custom is excessively injurious to the inhabitants, and especially to those who frequent public worship in such chapels and churches. God, decency, and health, forbid this shocking abomination. From long observation I can attest that churches and chapels situated in grave-yards, and those especially within whose walls the dead are interred, are perfectly unwholesome; and many, by attending such places, are shortening their passage to the house appointed for the living. What increases the iniquity of this abominable and deadly work is, that the burying-grounds attached to many churches and chapels are made a source of private gain. The whole of this preposterous conduct is as indecorous and unhealthy as it is profane. Every man should know that the gas which is disengaged from putrid flesh, and particularly from a human body, is not only unfriendly to, but destructive of, animal life. Superstition first introduced a practice which self-interest and covetousness continue to maintain.'

The remedy for all these evils is, either to burn the bodies of the dead, or to establish cemeteries at a distance from towns and human habitations, which should be sufficiently spacious to accommodate any number of corpses, and afford time for their perfect decomposition before the ground is again disturbed. It has been proposed to appropriate waste lands on the lines of railway for this purpose, which would thus afford ready means of access for those who desired to pay the last sad offices to the dead. A building for the reception of corpses should be erected in each cemetery, and people should be taught that the sooner a dead body is removed from their dwellings the better. It would be carried to the building prepared for it, and lie there until the day of the funeral, and all proper care would be taken to prevent any possibility of burying alive. Instead of the wasteful and objectionable array of funeral trappings, the mourners would go down to the cemetery, and there put on their mourning vestments, and lay them aside after the service had been performed with due solemnity and decorum, and return afterwards to their homes without any of the parade which in most cases is only a vulgar show.

In Mr. Chadwick's valuable report on 'Interments in Towns,' it is stated that one of the causes for delay in burying a body among the poorer classes, is the difficulty of raising a sufficient sum to pay the funeral expenses. These expenses are generally most extravagant; partly from a foolish desire among many people for a handsome funeral, partly from a love of great profits among undertakers. In a late number, (*Fam. Econ.*, vol. ii. p. 205.) we exposed some of the evils of 'Burial Clubs;' the temptations they afford to waste and extravagance, to say nothing of worse practices. In some cases a working-man's funeral costs from £20 to £40, because he had entered himself in several clubs; how much better would this money have been employed had it been left to the destitute family. Among the 150,000 'Odd Fellows' throughout the kingdom the expense of each funeral is reckoned at £10. It is not at all uncommon for what is called a 'respectable' funeral to cost from £100 to £150; and why?—because a great display is considered respectable. It has been truly said, that 'if the relatives of one who has been honoured with what is called a respectable funeral could witness the scenes which commonly ensue, even at the very place where the last ceremony has been performed, they would be scandalized at the mockery of solemnity which has preceded the disgusting indecency exhibited at the instant when the mourners are removed. An empty hearse, returning at a quick pace from a funeral, with half-a-dozen red-faced fellows sitting with their legs across the pegs which held the feathers, is a common exhibition.' Too often drunkenness is added to the general coarseness. A few weeks ago a hearse-driver, passing along Fleet-street, fell from his seat in a state of intoxication, and broke his leg.

It is the practice with some undertakers to give a fee to a physician or to the upper servants in families, in order to have their 'good word' for the funeral. Of course, somebody pays for this. One undertaker examined by the committee, states, 'the lowest average expense of a poor man's burial to be about £5; but that is where it is done, as is usually the case, at second or third hand. I frequently perform funerals three deep; that is, I do it for one person, who does it for another, who does it for the relatives of the deceased, he being the first person applied to. People generally apply to the nearest person. Everybody calls himself an undertaker. The numerous men employed as bearers become undertakers, although they have never done anything until they get the job. I have known one of these men get a new suit of clothes out of the funeral of one decent mechanic.'

Most undertakers, and the persons connected with them, consider it quite fair to make as much plunder as they possibly can by funerals; and whatever their extortion, it is generally paid, because people think it would be unkind and unbecoming to have a shabby funeral. But a cheap funeral need not be a shabby one. In Berlin a rich man's funeral costs £10, a tradesman's £2, and a workman's 15s. In Paris also, the lowest charge is 15s., and in both these cities, in fact, all over the continent, the funerals are conducted with such solemnity as to soothe and satisfy the feelings of the mourners. A priest and vicar attended by a bass-singer, or chorister for the mass, perform the religious service: 'the coffin is covered by a pall, and carried on a plain hearse, drawn by two black horses; and the funeral is conducted by a superintendent and four assistants, exclusive of the driver."

It is to be hoped that, as these facts become known, people will cease to waste their money on interments. It is proved that a pauper's funeral can be conducted in this country for 13s., a working-man's for £1. 8s. and £2. 10s.; tradesmen's from £3. 5s. to £16. How great would be the saving if these charges were universal! Among the sums laid up in savings'-banks all over the kingdom, it is calculated that from six to eight millions of pounds are deposited to provide for funeral and mourning expenses; while the amount actually spent on funerals is estimated at three millions of pounds yearly. The excess on this large sum, if applied to sanitation or education, would remove most of the causes of disease, degradation, and ignorance, and effect a lasting improvement in the health and morals of the community.

MONSTER BELL.—The great bell in the Ivan tower of the Kremlin at Moscow, weighs nearly 4,000,000 lbs. It is 21 feet 6 inches high; 22 feet 5 inches widest diameter; and varies in thickness from 2 feet to 6 inches. It was cast about the year 1730.

SPEED OF LIGHT.—Light comes to the earth from the moon in 1¼ seconds; from the sun in 8 minutes; from Jupiter in 52 minutes; from Uranus in 2 hours; from fixed stars of the first magnitude in 3 to 12 years, and from those of the twelfth magnitude in 4000 years.

SONG.

There is dew for the floweret,
And honey for the bee;
And bowers for the wild bird,
And love for you and me!

There are tears for the many,
And pleasures for the few;
But, let the world pass on, dear,
There's love for me and you!

There is care that will not leave us,
And pain that will not flee;
But on our hearts unalter'd
Sits Love, 'tween you and me!

Our love, it ne'er was reckon'd,
Yet good it is and true:
It's half the world to me, dear,
It's all the world to you!

Thomas Hood.

LICENSED SHOPLIFTERS.

Some weeks or so since, according to the *Sunday Times*, 'John Aaron, who keeps the King of Bohemia, High Street, Hampstead, was fined £2. for eight bad measures. This was a second conviction.'

This is only one out of some fifty defrauders, most of whom had been convicted for the second and third time. The punishment, in our opinion, is much too slight. An ignorant boy is sentenced to hard labour for months, if not transported, for stealing a pocket-handkerchief, and yet these respectable shoplifters can go on robbing their poor customers for months and months, and escape with a small fine. Tradesmen are generally unforgivingly severe against any monomaniac, or starving wretch, whom they detect shoplifting. What is a good punishment when they are robbed, must be equally good when they are the robbers, and much more so, for whereas the first is an isolated case of robbery, and may be only the first offence, the robbery by fraudulent weights and measures is a series of robberies which being perpetrated every hour of the day, it is impossible to calculate the number of offences, or the amount stolen.

Accordingly, as shoplifters are always imprisoned or transported for several years, so we would have these licensed shoplifters punished in the same manner. As the law at present is, every shopkeeper has an interest in being dishonest. If he has a large business, it is well worth his while to use false weights. What is a fine of 20s. once a quarter to him, if he can gain a penny every time he uses his fraudulent pound weight or quart measures? Why, he would clear as much, frequently, on the Saturday night. We cry out against gentlemen who are allowed to compound for their offence at the police-offices, by the payment of some small fine, and yet these shopkeepers escape by the same means every time that they are convicted. Trade has its golden and silver keys just as much as the peerage. If one of these genteel cheesemongers, or aristocratic publicans, was put in the Dock of the Old Bailey, and sentenced, like other prigs, to the mill for three months' hard labour, we should not hear of so many instances of this, the pettiest kind of petty larceny, committed behind the counter. As it is, any tradesman can be a shoplifter for five shillings; he pays his money, and he can go home and repeat the same offence the next minute. Highwaymen are extinct, and indeed where is the fun of risking your life when you can rob as you please, simply by opening a shop and using false weights and measures to any extent by paying for them.—*Punch.*

[The foregoing strictures, though severe, are no more than just. It *is* a most unequal law which consigns, it may be, a homeless child to the tread-mill for stealing a snuff-box, and yet permits a well-to-do shop-keeping rogue to escape by paying a penalty, which, to him, is a mere trifle, a sort of license-money, for commencing the business of fraud and cheating afresh. We know a grocer, who (compelled by the police we should say,) prosecuted a boy for stealing a herring, and the offender was sentenced to seven years' transportation, the expense on the county rate being nearly twenty pounds. Why not as equally severe law for the fraudulent shopkeeper.—Ed. *Fam. Econ.*]

GOOD BREEDING.

PART II.

We are not entitled, that is, we have no reason or right, to expect equal correctness of language from those who have had *many*, and those who have had *few* advantages of education. But without being fastidious, it must be set down as one of the marks of good breeding, when a certain degree of propriety is used in common discourse. A well-bred person will instinctively shun the use of all kinds and degrees, even the slightest, of profanity and indecency of language. If he do not abstain on the ground of religion and morality, he will out of regard and respect to others who might be pained by such a habit. Nothing stamps vulgarity upon the character of men or women more indelibly than when oaths, either little or big, or unmeaning expletives, frequently defile, debase, and deform their conversation. It was once, unhappily, considered a capital acquirement to swear well and boldly, and the coiner of a new oath enjoyed an unenviable distinction. A gentleman who could not or would not take all names in vain—Divine and human—was looked upon as terribly deficient in one of the grand qualifications of true gentility and high breeding. In process of time, and in short time, the filthy and abominable habit descended to lower ranks. Now, it is to be hoped, partly at least, in consequence of the spread of high and noble principles, it is looked upon as disgraceful to indulge in profane language. But there never has been a time, and there never will be, when such language will not be the sure and unmistakable token of an inherently ill-bred, as well as a wicked man.

A well-bred person will take care not to use slang words and expressions. There never has been a time, at least in late years, when there have not been some two or three cant vulgarisms in vogue among all the blackguards of the country. Sometimes these phrases have been caught up from some popular song or farce; sometimes, we believe, they have had their origin 'where assembles the collective wisdom of the country.' A dozen of these terse but meaningless sayings now dance before our recollection, for who has not heard them, even to loathing? But from whatever source they may have been drawn, or whatever wit there might be in their original position, the obtrusion of them into decent society is an unwarrantable piece of impertinence.

A habit of inserting into familiar conversation such phrases as 'You know,' 'You perceive,' 'You understand,' 'Says he,' 'Says she,' is, so far as those matters extend, a sign of a want of good breeding.

We must not, as we have just hinted, confound a deficiency in education, and a consequent want of nicety of speech, with ill-breeding; but yet it is certainly desirable that all persons should be aware of some very gross, but very common, defects in pronunciation, which sound ruggedly, at least, to ears accustomed to the tones of good society. Thus you may hear some persons speak with the utmost unconsciousness of anything peculiar in their language, of a *wery bootiful woo*, for a very beautiful view. Another, with equal complacency will tell us that the *baaba* who shaved him has got a good *sitooation.* Another, to improve upon this last sound, lengthens it out into *sitoowation;* while a third contracts it into the pretty mincing word, *sittivation.* One gentleman protests that his *wescutt* is worn out, and his lady explains how she makes *hotmill* gruel, declares how *taadily* the *waum weatha* comes on, and how shocking it is for people to go to *waugh* with each *otha.* It is obvious that such specimens as these might easily be indefinitely increased, and it will be equally obvious to those who think of these 'trifles,' literally 'light as air,' that the few examples we have given are by no means exaggerated. In very many cases, these improprieties of speech spring from affectation; but good breeding surely suggests that all English people should *try* to speak the English language with correctness and propriety.

There are graver faults in conversation, however, which indicate more forcibly the absence of good breeding in those who habitually fall into them. The first of these is a dogmatical habit of *setting down* all who think, or venture to give expression to a thought, opposed to our own opinion, or of asserting as indisputable facts what are matters only of opinion. The second, which is like unto it, is that of captiously disputing for disputation's sake, what, when all is said, is not worth the waste of breath it occasions. A third fault is that of flatly and hastily contradicting what you know to be an erroneous statement. In this case, good breeding suggests that the contradiction should be first of all put into the form of a question or a doubt. '*Soft* words and hard arguments,' are better than *hard* words and hard arguments. Another fault, and a grievous one, in conversation, is a bad habit of interrupting a speaker before he has a chance of completing the words he is uttering. Some persons are such adepts at this, that they seem to fancy they know intuitively the end of a sentence by the beginning of it ; and so inveterate is their habit, that if you converse with them for an hour, it is a chance if you are able to complete one coherent combination of words. It is somewhat amusing when two persons of this stamp get together, for none are more impatient of this habit than those who are most guilty of it ; and, at length, the conversation of two such talkers resolves itself into a war of words, and an effort to talk each other down. There is another habit in conversation, which is neither more nor less than another form of ill breeding, arising from an impatience of contradiction, however mild and considerate, and a self-importance which, under the guise of meekness, brooks no controversy, however friendly and instructive, and which shows itself in outward acquiescence, but undisguised disbelief, in all that is advanced. We hold this to be a vice in conversation of a very heinous degree, and one that shows a lamentable want, not only of good breeding, but of good common sense.

Champ, champ ; Smack, smack ; Smack, smack ; Champ, champ ;—It is one thing to know how to make a pudding, and another to know how to eat it when made. Unmerciful and monstrous are the noises with which some persons accompany the eating—no, the devouring—of the food for which, we trust, they are thankful. To sit down with a company of such masticators is like joining 'a herd of swine feeding.' Soberly, at no time, probably, are the rules of good breeding less regarded than at 'feeding time,' and at no place is a departure from these rules more noticeable than at table. Some persons gnaw at a crust as dogs gnaw a bone, rattle knives and spoons against their teeth as though anxious to prove which is the harder, and scrape their plates with an energy and perseverance which would be very commendable if bestowed upon any object worth the trouble. Others, defiance of the old nursery rhyme—

> 'I must not dip, howe'er I wish,
> My spoon or finger in the dish.'

are perpetually helping themselves in this very straightforward and unsophisticated manner. Another, with a mouth full of food, contrives to make his teeth and tongue perform the double duty of chewing and talking at the same time. Another, quite in military style, in the intervals of cramming, makes his knife and fork keep guard over the jealously watched plate, being held upright on either side in the clenched fist, like the musket of a raw recruit. And another, as often as leisure serves, fidgets his plate from left to right, and from right to left, or round and round, until the painful operation of feeding is over.

There is, we know, such a thing as being 'too nice'—'more nice than wise.' It is quite possible to be fastidious. But there are also such inconsiderable matters as decency and good order ; and it surely is better to err on the right than on the wrong side of good breeding.

Good breeding has a most favourable influence upon personal appearance and manners. No well-bred person likes to appear in dirty dishabille ; and however contaminating the worldly calling of such a person may be, his sense of propriety teaches him to make the best of it. We once knew a working chimney-sweep who—however many chimneys he had climbed in the course of the day—was to be seen at night in as clean garments, and with a cleaner skin, than many a man of much higher rank, and with a much cleaner calling. The general habits also of this man were so marked by propriety and true politeness, that no one with proper feelings would have scrupled at sitting down with him to table. On the other hand, there are a great many persons, not chimney-sweeps, whose habits are so gross, and whose persons are so uncleanly, that it is a penance to be long in their company.

Good breeding will keep a person from making loud and startling noises, from pushing past another in entering, or going out of a room; from ostentatiously using a pocket-handkerchief; from hawking and spitting in company; from fidgetting any part of the body; from scratching the head, or picking the teeth with fork or with finger. In short, it will direct all who study its rules to abstain from every personal act which may give pain or offence to another's feelings. At the same time, it will enable them to bear much without taking offence. It will teach them when to speak and when to be silent; and how to behave with due respect to all. By attention to the rules of good breeding, and more especially to its leading principles, 'the poorest man will be entitled to the character of a gentleman, and by inattention to them, the most wealthy person will be essentially vulgar. Vulgarity signifies coarseness or indelicacy of manner, and is not necessarily associated with poverty or lowliness of condition. Thus an operative artizan may be a gentleman, and worthy of our particular esteem; while an opulent merchant may be only a vulgar clown, with whom it is impossible to be on terms of friendly intercourse.' We need not take up space by pointing out the favourable influence which this form of politeness is likely to have upon the social and domestic well-being of a family, and how frequently, in the history of a well-bred individual, it may be the spring of a constant stream of prosperity. We venture, therefore, to urge, in conclusion, as a matter of personal comfort and *Family Economy*, that a due regard be paid by all our readers to the principles and—at least the *common*—rules of GOOD BREEDING.

ANECDOTE OF A NEWFOUNDLAND DOG.

A GENTLEMAN connected with the Newfoundland fishery was once possessed of a dog of singular fidelity and sagacity. On one occasion a boat and a crew in his employ were in circumstances of considerable peril, just outside a line of breakers, which—owing to some change in wind or weather—had, since the departure of the boat, rendered the return passage through them most hazardous. The spectators on shore were quite unable to render any assistance to their friends afloat. Much time had been spent, and the danger seemed to increase rather than diminish. Our friend, the dog, looked on for a length of time, evidently aware of there being great cause for anxiety in those around. Presently, however, he took to the water, and made his way through to the boat. The crew supposed he wished to join them, and made various attempts to induce him to come aboard; but no! he would not go within their reach, but continued swimming about a short distance from them. After a while, and several comments on the peculiar conduct of the dog, one of the hands suddenly divined his apparent meaning: 'Give him the end of a rope,' he said: 'that is what he wants.' The rope was thrown—the dog seized the end in an instant, turned round, and made straight for the shore; where a few minutes afterwards boat and crew—thanks to the intelligence of their four-footed friend—were placed safe and undamaged. Was there *reasoning* here? No acting with a view to an end or for a given motive? Or was it nothing but ordinary *instinct?*—*Rev. J. C. Atkinson in 'The Zoologist.'*

MOTHER'S LOVE.

Who should it be? where should'st thou look for kindness?
When we are sick, where can we look for succour?
When we are wretched, where can we complain?
And when the world looks cold and surly on us,
Where can we go to meet a warmer eye
With such sure confidence as to a mother?—*Joanna Baillie.*

SMOKY CHIMNEYS.

The causes of smokiness in chimneys are various; but all are connected with the properties of air and heat, for the smoke is only particles of culm ascending through the agency of heated air. To make a chimney vent well, the column of heated air from the fire must not be entangled with cold air from beneath, nor retarded by cold air coming down the chimney. To effect these objects, the fire-place must not be much larger than the grate, and the chimney must be of a certain length and bent. The great leading cause of smokiness is cold air somehow or other mixing with the warm air about the mouth or throat of the chimney, and so causing a sluggishness in the ascent, or no ascent at all. Therefore the nearer the air is made to pass the fire on all sides, the more rarefied it will be; and the less vacancy there is in the chimney-place, it will ascend with the greater rapidity. A proper contraction of the mouth of the chimney, at the same time allowing the fire to be fed freely with air, will be found in most instances to cure smoke. Of late, certain contrivances called 'dampers,' by which the chimney-throat can be narrowed, have been the means of effecting draughts, and so curing smoke. It should be noted, that in contracting chimney-throats, the contraction should not be all at once, but at first gradual, and then straight upward, so as not to allow a volume of cold air to lurk in a hollow above. A chimney being wide at bottom, and gradually narrowing towards the next storey, allows the coldish air to hang about the lower parts, by which, when a gust of wind comes, the smoke is driven back into the room. This kind of smokiness is the most teasing of all the forms of chimney diseases. Every little puff of wind sends a smaller or larger quantity of smoke into the apartment, and often when it is least expected. Perhaps this kind of smokiness is not in all cases caused by wrong construction, but arises from the situation of the house; and of this we shall immediately say a few words.

If a funnel of a chimney be made too narrow to afford an easy passage to the top, the smoke will then naturally be forced into the room to find some other passage; this defect is very common, and the remedy troublesome and difficult. The most effectual cure, if the situation will admit, is to build a small additional flue, and open a hole into it from the back of the chimney, near the level of the mantelpiece, slanting upward in an easy direction; this supplemental flue must be carried to the top of the building, to receive the surplus of the smoke, and will prove a certain cure. If the situation will not allow of this expedient, the fireplace may be contracted both in breadth and height, a smaller grate used, and the chimney heightened at the top; which will oblige the air to pass close over the fire, and carry up the smoke with greater rapidity; for the quicker the current, the less room it requires. Should the chimney still smoke, a blower, or front-plate, to put on and take off at pleasure, will be of use. But if none of these prescriptions answer, then something must be done to improve the current of air towards the fire. This brings us to a consideration of the want of sufficient ventilation in the room.

If the chimney and fireplace be faultless, and yet smoke, it is almost certain that there is a want of ventilation. In ordinary circumstances, as much air is admitted by chinks in windows and doors as will feed a fire; but if the room be rendered very close by closing as many chinks as possible, how is the fire to receive air? According to the plan on which houses are generally built, ventilation is left to be a matter of chance. To ventilate an old house is therefore no easy task. The following plans are worth considering, for they have been found to answer:—Contrive to bring a small tube from the external air, or from a staircase or lobby, to a point beneath the grate, so as to cause a free current of air to reach the fire. If the mouth of the tube below the grate be topped with a cowl, the ashes will be prevented from falling into it. Some years ago, the rooms of a public-office in Edinburgh were completely cured of smoke by this simple contrivance, after all other means had failed. Another plan consists in perforating small holes in the cornice or roof, for the air to gain admission; but, unfortunately, unless care be taken to prevent colds, this species of cure is apt to be worse than the disease.

Cases are by no means uncommon of fireplaces giving out a puff of smoke every time the door of the room is shut. The cause of this kind of smokiness is the want of ventilation in the room. In shutting the door, it pulls out a certain quantity of air, which cannot be afforded to be lost, or it causes such distraction of the current towards the fire, that the equilibrium that carries up the smoke is destroyed, and a puff downwards—in other words, a rush of air, loaded with smoke from the chimney—is the consequence. It will be remarked that this smokiness occurs most frequently when the door is on the same side of the room as the fireplace. We should therefore advise house-planners to avoid this bad arrangement. If possible, let the door be on a different side from that in which the fire is placed. Most houses in which the chimneys go up the middle walls instead of the gables, have the fault we mention. A remedy for this smokiness is to contract the mouth of the chimney, and, if possible, heighten the stalk; for if the chimney be pretty long, the heated air ascending it goes with such a force that the outer heavy air cannot get down, at least not to so great an extent as to cause a puff when the door is shutting. In some cases the cause of the disease will be found to be air rushing up behind the grate, if a register, and then coming down to supply the fire, the action of the door disturbing the current. This is therefore an argument for always taking care to build register stoves quite close behind, not leaving the smallest crevice for air to steal up the chimney without first going through the fire.

In erecting chimneys, it should be a rule to carry them up a good way in a perpendicular direction before making a turn, by which means the heated air gains a force in its primary vertical ascent which carries it over future difficulties. In walls in which the fireplace of one storey is immediately below the fireplace above, it is impossible to get a perfect straight for any great length; therefore this must be left to the judgment of the builder. It is also advantageous for all chimneys to have a bend in them before reaching the top, and a garret chimney should have two bends. For want of attention to this top bending, many cottage and small villa chimneys smoke. The use of bends is obvious: strong, sudden, and accidental gusts of wind sometimes enter, and beat into the top of the chimney; a turning or bend, therefore, will break the force of the wind, and prevent it repelling the heated air downwards. But if the chimney is straight, and the gust meet with no interruption, it will stop the passage of the smoke for a while, and of course force what rises from the fire immediately into the chamber. It is to be observed, that the farther the wind gets down the funnel, the greater strength will be required to repel it; therefore the nearer to the top the bend or winding is the better. Also, if there is a storm of wind, with heavy showers of hail, snow, or rain, falling perpendicularly in great drops, the first bend or turning will, in part, stop their progress; but if the funnel is perpendicular all the way down, the great drops of hail, snow, and rain, will fall freely to the bottom, repelling the smoke into the room; and if the funnel is foul, great quantities of soot will be driven down. These considerations recommend a bend in some part of the funnel as absolutely necessary.

Garret chimneys are more liable to smoke than any other in the house, owing to the shortness of the funnel: for when the composition of rarefied air and smoke has made its way up a high funnel, it forms a strong column, and to repel it requires a proportionably great force; but in a garret chimney this strong column cannot be obtained: therefore what cannot be had from nature must be aimed at by art. The fault in most garret chimneys is, being carried up in a straight direction from bottom to top in a slovenly manner, and with funnels as large as any in the house; whereby the little internal rarefied air has the whole immediate pressure of the atmosphere to resist, which in general is too powerful for it. But a garret or cottage chimney carried up and executed in a proper manner, with due proportion in every part, according to the size of the room, and the funnel in an easy crooked direction, will draw and be as clear from smoke as any other.

When smokiness is produced by too short a chimney, it will be necessary to add to its length either by building the stalk higher, or inserting an earthenware pot or iron tube at the summit. The building of higher stalks is an infallible remedy, provided all be right below; but it is attended with danger to adjoining roofs. Pots or cans are useful both in adding to height, and in causing a free disengagement and shooting of the smoke as soon as it enters the outer atmosphere.

Another very common cause of smokiness is fires overpowering one another. For instance, if there be two chimneys in one large room, and you make fires in both of them, the doors and windows close shut, you will find that the greater and stronger fire shall overpower the weaker, and draw air down its funnel to supply its own demand; which air descending in the weaker funnel, will drive down its smoke, and force it into the room. If, instead of being in one room, the two chimneys are in two different rooms, communicating by a door, the case is the same whenever that door is open. In a very tight house, it has been known that a kitchen chimney on the lowest floor, when it had a great fire in it, has overpowered any other chimney in the house, and drawn air and smoke into its room as often as the door was opened communicating with the staircase. The remedy for this is, to take care that every room in a house has the means of supplying itself with what air it requires, so that it does not need to borrow air from other rooms. Back smoke is only cold air loaded with smoke coming down into a room from an adjoining chimney-top, in order to supply, in the readiest manner, air to that room. Thus fires in the lower part of a house will draw air even from a garret room, and this garret room will draw air to supply its deficiency, by taking it in a smoky condition from the adjoining chimney-tops.

Smoking is also produced when the tops of chimneys are commanded by higher buildings, or by a hill, so that the wind blowing over such eminences, falls, like water over a dam, on the tops of the chimneys that lie in its way, and beats down the smoke contained in them. Sometimes we have seen the droll phenomenon —though it is no laughing matter—of every particle of smoke all of a sudden pouring into the room, in consequence of a gust of wind blowing pertinaciously for several minutes down the chimney. Such a form of smokiness arises chiefly from the situation of the house, and the want of a bend in the chimney. The remedy to be applied is fixing on the top of the chimney a turning cap or cowl, which acts like a weathercock, and keeps its closed side to the wind. These cowls, however, are creaking, noisy things; and being hence insufferable near sleeping-rooms, are only to be resorted to when more simple means have proved unavailing.—*Chambers' Information for the People.*

COTTAGE FARMER'S CALENDAR.

BY MARTIN DOYLE—MARCH.

THE FIELD.—Strong winds will now dry up the surface of the earth; but do not too hastily sow your seeds. The evaporation of moisture occasioned by the wind or the sun chills the ground considerably; witness the effects of it on the wheat plants, more especially on clay. Finish draining for the season; there is no better month than the present for this work, because you will now be able to see in the strata of the drying soil where springs rise, or rain water escapes most readily. Give the last turning to any composts that require pulverization and mixing, and are designed for spring crops. About the middle of the month (earlier in warm soils) sow your oats, and do not be satisfied with a careless and imperfect preparation of the land, on the plea that oats are more hardy than our other usual crops: the better tillage the better crop. If the land is rich, dibble the seed as recommended in last month—sowing from 2½ to 3 bushels per acre, or else drill at 9 inches. Pickle the seed first by placing each sack of it separately on the barn floor, and pouring over it (not out of an iron vessel or it will be corroded) a solution of 8 oz. of sulphate of copper (blue vitriol); it will dry of itself in an hour, and be ready for sowing.—(*Agricultural Gazette.*) The vitriol is supposed to destroy the spores of smut adhering to the grain. The Tartarian oat is to be recommended in bleak situations. "The Hopetoun, Potato and Poland oats are good varieties—the first being distinguished by an abundant yield, and good and bulky straw; the second by the quality of the grain; and the third by its earliness."—(*Agr. Gazette.*)

Sow successions every fortnight of vetches in narrow drills, 3 bushels to the acre. One of the objects in sowing vetches being to smother growing weeds, and shade the surface so as to prevent the evaporation of moisture from it, there will be no bad result from over-seeding. Dibble beans and drill peas, if not yet done, in rows at least 18 inches apart, as early in the month as possible. Plant more early potatos. Prepare your ground for barley and your main crop of potatos at the close of the month, either by cross ploughing the ribbed fallows, or by levelling and thoroughly pulverizing the soil to the depth of at least 12 inches with the spade; but do not be tempted yet to sow the grain or plant the sets until next month, unless under very favouring circumstances of soil and climate. Prepare the land also for carrots and parsnips, and towards the end of the month harrow or rake your wheat if you mistakenly intend not to hoe it, and roll after harrowing. Pick off stones from the wheat plants, and top-dress with a mixture, in equal quantities, of soot and salt, if you can easily procure it. Lime slaked with a solution of salt in water and ashes strewn over the surface will invigorate the plants and preserve them from the ravages of grubs and insects. Top-dress clover if you have a sprinkling of lime or ashes to spare. Where gypsum is obtainable, use it in preference to other substances. It has a powerful effect on clover. Chalk is also a manure very congenial with its nature. Take care of your ewes and lambs; feed them abundantly: your fat sheep will bring a high price, and thus prove the value of turnips in more ways than one.

The Garden.—Sow beans and peas, and according to soil, shelter and climate, sow sooner or later in this month, carrots, parsnips, onions, early turnips, radishes, leeks, the thousand-headed cabbage, borecole, savoys, and the common hardy annuals of the flower-garden. If you have a market for asparagus you may now plant a bed of it. Make a plantation of artichokes in rows 4 feet apart, opening trenches for the offsets, or making holes for them of at least 15 inches diameter and 3 feet apart; and put offsets into each opening with the tops above ground, and manure the roots abundantly. Dress the old artichoke plants, levelling the ridges or partial elevations, and mix the long stable litter which had been about the plants with the soil: you may still plant Jerusalem artichokes, in rows 2 feet apart. Plant offsets of garlic, shalots, and chives, and cuttings of kitchen herbs. Finish the nailing of wall-fruit trees, after completing the pruning of them according to the order of their bearing. Plant standard fruit trees and train espaliers, which are far preferable to standard trees, unless these be trained in the French manner, which prevents them from straggling in their growth and overshadowing the ground. The mode of proceeding we shall greatly abridge from the manner of treatment described in the *Agricultural Class Book*, published by direction of the Commissioners of National Education in Ireland.

Suppose you have a pear tree which was side-budded in the month of July last, in a stock 3 or 4 inches above the ground; shorten the stem in February (or *early* in March) between 2 and 3 inches above the point where the bud was grafted in. When the bud has become a scion or shoot, tie it to the stock with osier tops, or to a stake fixed firmly in the ground. Towards the end of May, *stop* the shoot if it be strong, at about 12 inches, by which means you will gain four or six side shoots in the course of the year. In the early spring of the following year, cut off the portion of the stock which had been left at the first pruning above the graft. Shorten all the side shoots in regular lengths, so that they shall present the outline of a distaff, narrow at the top and wide at the base. As the sap always ascends, the lowest branches are left unpruned, in order to turn the direction of the sap as much as possible towards them, to give them strength. But though in the pruning and choosing the buds or branches to be left, the perfect regularity of those branches may be departed from, the general appearance of the tree when fully established, will be that of a distaff or cone. "This shape is the best for standard apple and pear trees; because as the branches are made shorter from the bottom to the top, and at angles of 45 degrees with the stem, they have the full benefit of the sun's rays in summer, when they fall upon the earth at that angle. No part overshades another; and thus all parts are open to air, heat and moisture."

[Diagrams in the cheap book referred to explain each step of the progress of growth and pruning.]

ABOUT SHEEP.—BY MARTIN DOYLE.

The sheep is one of the gentlest of the animals which God has created for the food and clothing of man. This animal is useful to us in various ways. Its flesh feeds us; its milk supplies cheese; its fat, besides its uses in cookery, supplies us with candles and ointments and material for soap; its wool clothes us and serves for bedding, carpeting and other articles of furniture, and affords employment to multitudes of men, women and children in various trades, and amusement to ladies who delight in knitting, netting and rug-making. So important are the uses to which the fleecy covering of a sheep is convertible, that the Drapers' Company originally intended to adopt this motto: 'No ram, no lamb; no sheep, no wool; no wool, no woolman; no woolman, no spinner; no spinner, no weaver; no weaver, no cloth; no cloth, no clothier; no clothier, no cloth-worker, fuller, tucker, shearman, or draper.' The milk and cheese of sheep constitute in many countries a chief article of human food. Even the horns, which in some varieties are common to both sexes, are useful to the button-maker; glue is extracted from the trotters, and the skin serves for parchment, book-binding, gloves, and other purposes for which leather is useful. In a practical and brief sketch such as this is designed to be, it is unnecessary to distinguish more than a few of the principal varieties of the sheep reared in Great Britain, where they have been brought to greater perfection than in any other country in the world.

The improved Leicester or Dishley, which is of the long-wooled class (though their wool is shorter than that of the long-wooled sheep generally); the Southdowns and the Cheviots (short-wooled); and the Blackfaced (with long coarse wool), are sufficiently distinctive for our purpose. Without particularly noticing any of the intermediate kinds and useful crosses, we may point to these as the best types from which a farmer may propagate a stock suited to every locality in the United Kingdom, from the most luxuriant pastures of Leicestershire. to the most elevated and barren mountains of Scotland and Ireland.

The Leicesters arrive early at maturity, and fatten to a great weight, and their form is beautiful to one who views them as mere living masses of mutton, and likes to feel a thick lining of fat on the ribs and shoulders and other parts. This breed too, has an early aptitude for fattening on rich pastures (for which alone they are designed) and have fleeces from 5 to 7 inches in length of staple, but as the meat is not delicately flavoured, it is positively rejected by some butchers' customers. And as the fat is chiefly laid on the external parts, where it is often of disgusting and very *uneconomical* thickness, a preference is given, in all places to which the breed is suitable, to the Southdowns, which *die* better, as butchers say, having the fat more equally and more internally deposited, and less accumulated on the external parts of the shoulders and loins, &c. The Leicesters also are not considered as prolific, nor as good nurses, nor as hardy, nor as easily trained to confinement as the Southdowns. These have not such unwieldly bodies as the Leicesters, with legs disproportioned to the bulky bodies which they have to support, and are active and handsome. On the chalky and gravelly soils of Sussex, in which county they have existed at least from the time of the Norman invasion, no sheep can thrive better, and for general purposes, in all the lowland counties of the United Kingdom, they seem to be preferable to any other kind. In Berkshire, as in Sussex, they are almost the universal breed maintained, and for general objects there seems to be no good reason for not preserving the pure breed unmixed in that and all other districts to which they are suitable.

The Cheviots, which have been from the earliest times bred on the Cheviot hills, in most parts of the southern highlands of Scotland, and many of the central and northern parts also, have been improved by the sheep-breeders' care. Though they have not that depth in the breast and breadth in the chine which the better-fed lowland sheep possess, and are very inferior in carcase compared with the Leicesters (the ewes only weighing from 12 to 14 lbs. a quarter, and fat wethers from 16 to 18 lbs.), they are well suited for the scanty herbage and ungenial winter temperature of the hills of our northern latitudes. They thrive among moors and peat mosses, and in the severest weather are left to shift for themselves, unless the depth of snow be such as to render it necessary to give them hay, or oats if the elevation of the land be so great as to render impracticable the conveyance of hay to them —turnips in such case being out of the question. As the length of their legs enables them to range about in search of the herbage on which they subsist, and their fine fleece is so close as to resist the severity of winter, they would prove a valuable stock in the mountain districts of Ireland, where they would enjoy a much more favourable temperature, and be always certain of finding a sufficiency of pasturage, without the necessity of scraping off the snow with their feet, as they have learnt to do on their native hills.

The Blackfaced, of which breed both sexes have horns, (the Cheviots are without them in either,) are more suited however, to the very high and heath-covered mountains of Scotland, as they also are to those of great elevation in Ireland, because, though inferior to the Cheviots in size, and neither arriving so early at maturity nor fattening so readily, they are a still more hardy race, and can subsist on the heath shoots which are not sufficient for the Cheviots. These highland and hill sheep, as may be supposed, are only reared on the highlands; they are sold afterwards to the lowland graziers, who feed and fatten them on good pastures, and possibly coax them to eat turnips, by half-starving them into a relish for such unwonted delicacies.

The age of a sheep is known by its teeth until it attains its fifth year, after that period there is no certainty of its age. The eight incisor front teeth in the lower jaw, with which the lamb is born, give way successively to others which replace them year by year in pairs: thus a shearling has two new teeth in front; a two year old, four; a three-year old, six; and a four-year old, the full set of eight.

The ewe goes twenty weeks with young; and the period for lambing varies according to circumstances. It is deferred longer in the colder parts of our country, where scanty vegetation and harsh winds would be so unfavourable both to the ewes and the lambs in the earlier months of spring. In the milder climates of our midland and southern counties, where shelter and juicy food are provided for the nursing mothers in the first months of the year, the season of lambing takes place early, and there are some breeds of sheep, the Dorsetshire for instance, (which are mostly horned,) that will breed at almost any time of the year, and are therefore highly valuable to farmers who desire to have lambs dropped at Michaelmas for supplying house lamb in the London market between Christmas and the usual season. Lambs designed for the early markets should have bruised peas or oats (the former are preferable) put into a trough for them, as soon as they will nibble at them, which will be at a few days' old. Ewes, whether before or after lambing, should never be allowed to lose their condition. The growth and vigour of lambs that are to be kept on, are greatly promoted by early feeding; therefore they should never be stinted in their natural supply of milk, for if they be deprived of their full allowance of it before the proper time of weaning, say at twelve weeks, (though in some districts they are allowed to run with the ewes until August, in order to admit of cheese-making,) they will sustain a loss in vigour which cannot be compensated by the gain in cheese or in milk, which is sometimes abstracted from the use of the lamb for the children of hill cottagers. The ram lambs not intended for breeding purposes, are usually incapacitated from propagating their kind at the age of three weeks, (at which period the tails of lambs are usually docked off,) but in some cases that operation is deferred until the beginning of autumn, to promote greater size and more vigour of constitution.

The management of sheep varies much in different districts of the United Kingdom, according to the peculiarities of soil and climate. In some they are grazed throughout the whole year, and only get hay if the severity of the weather prevents them from biting the blades of grass, or where natural shelter is not available for them; and sheep so treated yield the best-flavoured mutton. A flock of handsome sheep at full liberty, in a fine park or lawn, ruminating in luxurious indolence under the shade of a widely-branching tree, is a very interesting sight; and, on the contrary, a flock huddled together, as we often see them in the lowlands of Scotland and the north of England, on a corner of a turnip field, in a cold, wet, wintry or early spring day, where they are closely penned until they have consumed every eatable mouthful, however foul and unpalatable it may have been rendered from the contamination of their own excrement, and without any shelter than that which the hurdles or a clipped and leafless hedge afford, is a very painful exhibition of animal discomfort. Yet in point of *economy* the folding of sheep upon turnips during one half of the year, and on clover, tares, &c., during the other half, is far preferable to the old system of grazing at large, for it has been by this mode of management which keeps a due proportion of every arable farm under green crops, that the soil of England has been rendered so productive, and that such profitable employment has been afforded to great numbers of human beings in the manufacture of wool.

There is however, another mode of confining sheep practised by some farmers in preference to the folding system, viz., keeping them in house. As this method is quite applicable to the *cottager,* who should study minute economy, and who may find it more convenient to purchase a couple of sheep than a cow, and may have only food from his garden or patch of clover or tares for the former stock, we shall give a few particulars on the subject, having travelled lately for the purpose of examining a sheep establishment in Hampshire. The building is about 80 feet long and 10 feet wide (in the clear), open in front, and containing a boarded grating laid over a bricked and cemented sewer, which receives the droppings and urine of the sheep until it may be convenient to remove this valuable mass of manure. The breadth and space allowed for every pair of sheep (which have a rack and manger to which they are fastened) is 3 feet, so that about fifty sheep are accommodated in the shed. Broken-mouthed ewes and wethers are the principal stock. They were brought in about the 1st of July last, in pretty good condition, from sweet hill pasturage, and a short run on a field principally of white clover and trefoil, and it was expected that in four months they would be in perfect condition, weighing probably 30 lbs. a quarter. Tares or clover, with peas and oil-cake, will be their food until Swedes come in, and for the lots fattened in the winter and spring months, the following allowance of food may be deemed a sufficient average allowance, even for heavy sheep:—2½ lbs. of hay, 2 lbs. of oats, 1 lb. of peas, and 7 lbs. of turnips. There seems to be no reason why three successive lots might not be fattened annually under this management.

A cottager might perhaps find it as profitable to keep two or more ewes to provide lambs for the very early markets, when he might expect from 30s. to 40s. each; and as the Dorsetshire have lambs occasionally twice in the year, and twins frequently, they are the best kind for this purpose. But the Southdowns crossed with the Gloucestershire are also to be recommended. After feeding the ewe highly with turnips, parsnips, corn and oil-cake, *after lambing*, and while nursing, her condition will be easily advanced afterwards, and until she is fattened off and sold. Or she may be held over, but we think less beneficially, for yielding other lambs, until she becomes broken-mouthed, and too old to be kept. A benevolent man does not like to devote his pets to the shambles until he cannot help it. The wool of the Dorsetshire race is of high quality, though not great in quantity.

The rich ammoniacal manure obtained by the foregoing methods is, to a *little farmer*, (such as are numerous in Ireland,) or to an English cottager with a field or good-sized garden, of exceeding value. But all things considered, if he can provide plenty of litter for the bedding of pigs he ought to keep them in preference to sheep, if he must limit himself to keeping either the one or the other. If he does not intend to breed lambs for the Christmas markets, and wants to obtain a suitable stock for lambing at the natural period, he should purchase ewes in lamb during the month of October. No fixed rule can be laid down for the guidance of cottagers with land, as to the relative benefits to be obtained by keeping a cow, pigs, or sheep, for after all, the question resolves itself into one of locality and other circumstances. Where one animal is beneficial in a particular county, another may be preferable in another; but the pig is almost indispensable to convert the litter into rich manure, and to act as a *save-all* by consuming the offal which the other animals would reject.

ABOUT GEESE.

Like the domestic fowl, the tame goose has been celebrated from remote antiquity. The cackling of geese saved the Capitol of Rome from destruction when the city was taken and pillaged by the Gauls. The custom of eating roast goose on Michaelmas-day, arose from the circumstance of Queen Elizabeth having one on her table when she heard of the scattering of the Spanish Armada.

We shall not treat on the numerous varieties of *wild*, or even of *tame* geese, our object being rather to direct attention to means of profit, than to entertain our readers with treatises and speculations on subjects not likely to prove of advantage, except to scientific persons.

The common goose scarcely needs description, it is to be seen almost anywhere in the country. It is usually white and gray mixed, sometimes quite white, especially among the males. The mixed or parti-coloured is supposed to be less vagrant in its habits than the gray goose, and the feathers are more valuable; but the latter is more prolific and produces the finest young ones. The gander should be a pure white, and of a large size.

A single breeding stock consists of a gander and five geese; these are enough for an ordinary farm-yard, as they will produce forty or fifty young in the season. They may be lodged in almost any covered place or out-house; they are fond of a clean and dry spot in which to pass the night; and attention to provide them with plenty of fresh straw, preserves them from vermin, and improves their health and condition.

It is not absolutely needful to have a pond for them; many persons keep geese successfully who have not this advantage; yet if there should be a pond or stream in their vicinity it will be of benefit to them, as affording them the means of gratifying the instinct of their nature. Abundance of clean water must be provided when there is no river or pond near. Persons whose premises are confined, cannot profitably keep geese for breeding, as a meadow or common is necessary for them to range in, from which to procure the greater part of their food; for if it be necessary to feed them much no profit will be obtained.

To have early broods is advantageous, that the young geese may be full-grown when the time arrives for disposing of them; and also because a second brood may then sometimes be obtained in the same year. The Chinese geese which have been introduced into this country for many years, commence laying in November, and in mild seasons the goslings are hatched in January, which if kept warm and dry, and well fed, are ready for the spit by May.

The laying of the goose may be hastened by feeding them well all through the winter upon good solid corn; in January other stimulating food should be given in addition, such as bread or pollard soaked in beer, barley-meal in milk, malt, fresh grains, or Indian corn either whole or ground. The time of commencing laying is usually the beginning of February. An egg is laid every alternate day, or if the weather be warm, two in three days, until ten or twelve are produced. If removed as soon as they have been deposited in the nest, the goose will continue to lay for a much longer period, or until there are from twenty to thirty eggs; and at harvest-time she will begin to lay again, and probably produce as many more. Instances are on record of geese producing seventy, and even one hundred eggs in a year.

The time of laying may be known by the goose carrying straws to form her nest; when this is seen, a nest of straw, lined with soft hay, should be prepared in the place intended for her to deposit her eggs. Nettles strewed around are said to attract them to any desired spot, as they are fond of the smell. Food and water must be placed near the nest, and when one egg is laid, she will continue to lay in the same place. The number of eggs usually allowed is eleven, but there is no reason why more should not be given them, according as the goose may be able to cover them. If the goose should want to sit after laying only a few eggs, she must be prevented until a sufficient number is ready for her. Where many geese are kept, the desired number may be made up from the nests of others. Eggs may be hatched under a hen; four or five are as many as she will be able to keep warm. Turkey hens are kept in some parts of France for sitting on goose eggs; they are able to cover fifteen or sixteen eggs.

While the goose is sitting, food and water should be placed near her nest, that she may not be obliged to quit it for any length of time, and the eggs thereby become cold and addled. No harm will arrive from the gander being allowed to be near, he seems to watch with interest for the time when the young shall be hatched. In Lincolnshire the practice of breaking the shell to let out the gosling is resorted to, perhaps with less danger than attends the breaking of hen's eggs for the same purpose. About the thirtieth day the eggs will begin to be hatched; as the young come forth irregularly, those first produced must be removed if the goose will allow it, and kept warm before a fire, and replaced with the parent when the whole are hatched.

The goslings should not be fed for twelve hours. If the weather be warm, they may after two days be turned out into the open air, care being taken that they do not go out too early in the morning, that they do not remain out too late, and that they be well sheltered from the wind and rain; they must also be prevented from going into the water until they are a week or more old, as they are very liable to the cramp. Their food may be either warm bread and milk, or thin barley-meal and water, curdled milk, lettuce leaves, and the plant called *goosegrass* or *clivers*, which grows so plentifully in early spring, and of which they are very fond.

After a few days they may be allowed to go abroad with the parent, but care must be taken to destroy all nightshade, hemlock and henbane that may be growing near their haunts, as they will eat these things and poison themselves. When they have a common to range over, and a pond to frequent, they will scarcely require any feeding; vegetables from the garden may occasionally be given, but beyond this, they will get their own living.

There are very many processes and different kinds of food recommended for fattening geese, some of them expensive, and others unnecessary, as an over-fattened goose is anything but a delicacy. The best method is that practised by Cobbett, and which, as we have proved its practical value, we shall now quote :—'Geese are raised by *grazing ;* but to fat them something more is required. Corn of some sort, or boiled Swedish turnips, or carrots, or white cabbages, or lettuces, make the best fatting. The modes that are resorted to by the French for fatting geese, are I hope such as Englishmen will never think of. He who can deliberately inflict *torture* upon an animal, in order to heighten the pleasure his palate is to receive in eating it, is an abuser of the authority which God has given him, and is, indeed, a tyrant in his heart. Who would think himself safe, if at the *mercy* of such a man ?

'Geese are in general eaten at the age when they are called green geese; or after they have got their full and entire growth, which is not until the latter part of October. Green geese are tasteless squabs; loose flabby things; no rich taste in them: and, in short, a very indifferent sort of dish. The full-grown goose has solidity in it; but it is *hard* as well as solid, and in place of being *rich*, it is strong, Now there is a middle course to take. For three years, including the present year, I have had the finest geese that I ever saw or ever heard of. I have bought from twenty to thirty every one of these years. I buy them off the common late in June, or very early in July. They have cost me from two shillings to three shillings each, first purchase. I bring the flock home and put them in a pen, about 20 feet square, where I keep them well-littered with straw, so as for them not to get filthy. They have one trough in which I give them dry oats, and they have another trough where they have constantly plenty of clean water. Besides these, we give them two or three times a-day a parcel of lettuces out of the garden. We give them such as are going to seed generally, but the better the lettuces are, the better the geese. If we have not lettuces to spare, we give them cabbages, either loaved or not loaved; though, observe, the white cabbage as well as the white lettuce, that is to say, the loaved cabbage or lettuce, are a great deal better than those that are not loaved. This is the food of my geese. They thrive exceedingly upon this food. After we have had the flock about ten days we begin to kill, and we proceed once or twice a-week till about the middle of October, sometimes later. A great number of persons who have eaten of these geese, have all declared that they did not imagine that a goose could be brought to be so good a bird. I should think that the cabbages or lettuces perform half the work of keeping and fattening my geese; and these are things that really cost nothing. I should think that the geese, upon an average, do not consume more than a shilling's-worth of oats each. So that we have these beautiful geese for about four shillings each. No money will buy me such a goose in London; but the thing that I can get nearest to it will cost me seven shillings. Every gentleman has a garden. That garden has, in the month of July, a waggon-load at least of lettuces and cabbages to throw away. Nothing is attended with so little trouble as these geese. There is hardly anybody near London that has not room for the purposes here mentioned."

Geese will almost grow fat when turned into the stubble-fields after harvest, which is of great importance to the farmer, as their dung is a powerful manure, and is said to be a great improver of coarse grass lands.

The profit on geese from their flesh and feathers, and their dung even, may be an important consideration for the cottager who has a common near his dwelling, and a garden to supply them with vegetables. The price of feathers is about half-a-crown a-pound.

Much barbarity has been said to be practised in plucking the living geese, in those counties where they are annually deprived of their feathers; from want of dexterity in the operator, many are so torn and mangled as to occasion their death; while the cold nights frequently carry off hundreds of the poor things which have been stripped of their warm plumage. No effectual remedy for what appears to be almost an act of necessity has however been proposed.

Geese are subject to diarrhœa or looseness: for this complaint hot ale in which acorns, quinces, or bark has been boiled, may be given them. When they are attacked by giddiness, the remedy is bleeding, by pricking with a needle a vein which is under the skin that separates the claws. Insects get into the ears and nostrils of goslings, and are a dreadful annoyance to them; in such a case give them barley at the bottom of a pan of water, so that when the goslings plunge their heads to eat the barley, the insects will be destroyed or fly away.

VARIETIES.

Quacks.—Every quack who starts attempts to make his way by pandering to ignorant, vulgar, and ungrateful prejudices against the medical profession. People do not reflect that this profession is perhaps the most difficult and arduous of any human science or pursuit. How many complaints there are that are incurable,—how many more the nature, causes, and removal of which often baffle the most consummate skill,—how many patients also seem to pride themselves in setting at nought the directions of their medical advisers, eating and drinking every thing before them, refusing their medicine, and then abuse the doctor because they do not get well, and in many cases finish off by never paying his bill. These things are of every day occurrence, and constitute the staple of every medical man's experience. Where is there a more anxious, hard-worked, and irregularly paid profession? At every hour of the day or night the doctor must turn out, in rain and sunshine, heat or cold; he must go into the most disgusting abodes, and penetrate the most distant and lonely districts,—in numberless cases with the certainty that he will never receive a farthing for his trouble, and for the medicines he provides;—he must put up with the most unreasonable and ridiculous demands, and bear the most unkind and unjust reproach—when at the same time perhaps no one feels more acutely than himself the difficulties and disappointments connected with his profession, denying him too often the power to save his dearest connexions from the grave, if even he can mitigate their sufferings. We know there are unprincipled and incompetent men in this profession as in all others, but as a whole they are among the most intelligent, useful, and indispensable members of the community, and confer an amount of good which is incalculable.—*Midland Monthly Advertiser.*

Agricultural Prosperity Dependent on Labour.—It is of the utmost importance to society to put the agricultural labourer in a better position, to increase his comforts, and to give him a stake in the country; a consideration which, we fear, has been too much lost sight of. After all that capital can procure, skill direct, and science advise, the owner of land is utterly undone without the active and willing aid of a stout and well-disposed peasantry. It is a frightful mistake to suppose that one sort of labourer is as good as another, or to regard a man as a mere machine, out of which a certain amount of brute force may be extracted, if a certain amount of cooked food is put into it. Labour must be the foundation of agricultural prosperity; we cannot plough, and reap, and sow, or feed cattle, or do any of the main operations of cultivation, by driving a steam-engine. We must trust to hands for their due performance; and it makes a very serious difference whether those hands are willing or reluctant.

For Young Ladies.—When Philip Henry, the father of the commentator, sought the hand of the only daughter of Mrs. Mathew in marriage, an objection was made by her father, who admitted that he was a gentleman, scholar, and an excellent preacher, but he was a stranger, 'and they did not even know where he came from.' 'True,' said the daughter, who had well weighed the excellent qualities and graces of the stranger, 'but I know where he is going, and I would like to go with him;' and they walked life's pilgrimage together.

Illness.—Nature prohibits food in illness by removing the appetite. It is mistaken kindness to press the patient with it.—*Dr. Willson.*

Three Notions.—Sydney Smith said there were three things which every man fancied he could do,—farm a small property, drive a gig, and write an article.

The Corner.

"How can I do this great wickedness, and sin against God?"—Gen. xxxix. 9.

Joseph was a slave and in a strange country: he was tempted by a wanton and revengeful mistress; had he complied he would have been sure of secrecy and rewards; but if he resisted, he might expect her keenest resentment, if not the loss of his life. Yet all these could not influence him: he chooses to submit to every inconveniency and danger rather than be guilty of so foul a crime, and sin against God. Hence we may learn that the fear of God is a most effectual preservative against all criminal indulgences; it was this that restrained Joseph, and will, where it is possessed, have the same effect on all mankind, upon all occasions, and in every scene of life. It regulates every passion, every spring of human actions, and includes in it all the most powerful motives by which the conduct of mankind is determined. If interest be the principal thing that sways us, it surely cannot be so certainly promoted as by securing the favour of God, and avoiding his displeasure. If we regard our fears, he is the most formidable Being in the universe to a mind that has perverted its faculties, and transgressed the laws of its nature. If we are swayed by hope, he is the supreme Good; if by love, he is the most amiable and perfect Excellence; if by gratitude, he is the Author of all our happiness.—*Bogatzky.*

THE CANVAS BAG.

A TALE.—PART II.

The morning came: the clouds and the rain had passed away: the sun rose joyously and bright as he will sometimes do on a December day. George left his miserable pallet, and stealthily entered the room in which his father slept. The sick man was slumbering—but a change for the worse had taken place during the night: the thin pallid features were pinched and drawn together in that peculiar manner which precedes death. The young man approached the bed, and perceiving that his father was yet sleeping, turned, without noticing the change of countenance, to a press at the opposite side of the room, and withdrawing the canvas bag, silently departed. He had resolved upon removing the danger far from him. We should never be too confident in our own strength. If we pray to God not to 'lead us into temptation,' we should not ourselves go into it. It was under the conviction of this truth that George Smith hurried to the town, and entering the shop of a respectable printer, the proprietor also of a newspaper, whom he had been in the habit of supplying with vegetables, stated to the person in attendance, that he wished to see the master of the house. There was an earnestness, and, at the same time, a civility in his manner, which at once gained the favourable attention of the man to whom this request was addressed. Civility costs little, but is of great value: it recommends all ranks, and detracts from none. George was informed that Mr. Bingley was engaged in his office with a gentleman, who had arrived at an early hour in the morning on business of importance, but would probably be at liberty very shortly. This turned out to be the case, even sooner than was expected, for in about a minute after, a door at the rear of the shop was opened, and a man of very gentlemanly bearing, and extreme benevolence of countenance advanced, followed by Mr. Bingley.

'Well,' said the stranger. 'I shall leave the matter entirely in your hands, and I trust we shall soon have some good tidings.'

'You may depend upon it, Sir William, every proper step shall be taken forthwith,' returned Mr. Bingley.

'O, I have no doubt of that,' answered Sir William, as with a kind bow he left the shop.

George had stepped aside when they appeared, he now approached the worthy shopkeeper, and requested to be allowed a few minutes' conversation.

'Why, what's the matter Smith?' asked Mr. Bingley, recognizing him, 'you seem excited—has any thing happened to distress you?'

'O, I'll tell you all, sir, if you will allow me to go in there,' said George, pointing to the still open office-door.

'Well, well, let us see—come in, though I am very busy this morning.'

'A minute or two will be enough, sir, I assure you,' urged George, as he followed the shopkeeper into the office, and closed the door.

When they had entered, the young man opened a small bundle, which he carried in his hand, and exposed the canvas bag to Mr. Bingley's view.

'Why, what is this, Smith?' said the latter, hastily. 'Can it be possible? Yes; it answers the description given; it is the very bag which Sir William Curtis lost. How did you come by it, young man: are you aware what it contains?'

'I believe it is full of money, sir, but I did not try, as you may perceive; it has not been opened. I found it on the public road, not far from our cottage, and I am come to place it in your care, until the rightful owner shall be found.'

'That will not be long then, Smith. This money is the property of that gentleman who has just left me, after giving directions to have it advertised and otherwise sought after this very day. I must follow him immediately and inform him of his good fortune.'

Mr. Bingley took up the bag, and directing George to wait for him in the shop, hastened after the owner of the money.

A short time had elapsed; it seemed a long time to poor George, whose thoughts recurred to his parents. He remembered that they were without food, and his heart was filled with the bitterest sorrow. Had his errand to the bookseller been different from what it was, he might have asked assistance in his extremity. But now he considered that such a resource was entirely cut off. He could not endure the idea of soliciting aid immediately after restoring the money; it would seem like hinting at reward for doing only what it was his duty to do. Half an hour passed away: he became impatient; he seemed to hear his father calling for food, and to see his mother weeping, because she had none to give. With an aching heart he rushed from the shop, and hurrying through several streets, at last entered a house, over the door of which three yellow balls suspended, indicated the nature of the business carried on within. When he came out he had no coat on, but his features were calm, they wore even an expression of joy, as entering a shop in the neighbourhood he purchased some food, such as the small sum he had obtained permitted. With this store he directed his steps homeward as hastily as he could. When he approached the cottage his joy was great. He upbraided himself with his former fears. The sparrows chirped gaily in the leafless hedgerows; and he said within himself, "fear ye not; ye are of more value than many sparrows." Comforted by the holy words he went in—a wailing sound fell upon his ears. He entered his father's room: his mother was weeping by the bed. 'It is as I thought,' he said; 'he wanted food, and she had none to give—here mother, here it is.' She raised her head—he had come so quietly that she did not perceive him until he spoke; but then sobbing loudly as she gazed upon him, she cried, 'O George, it is all over!' The words pierced his very soul: an icy chill crept over him, and for a moment he was without the power to move. His happy anticipations were dashed down. His father needed no food now: the spirit had fled to that land of peace, where there is no more sorrow, nor crying, nor pain, for the former things are passed away. George drew near the bed: he looked upon the pallid features, calm in death, of the being he had so loved and honoured during life, and raising his eyes to heaven, said,—"Thy will be done."

That day passed and left them mourning. The morning came and found them mourning still; for the heart will bleed when those with whom its strong affections are entwined, are torn from it. Religion does not harshly oppose our griefs but she chastens them, and gives "the garment of praise for the spirit of heaviness."

George and his mother were not alone: their friends the Joneses had come to comfort and to help them in the last melancholy duty which remained to be discharged towards the dead. They knew nothing of the extremity to which the Smiths had been reduced. The latter did not mention their poverty; but it was not any false pride that made them thus reserved. George knew the pain it would cause to the widow and her daughters, who were themselves so poor, and one of whom he so tenderly loved, and, therefore, refrained from saying any thing to them upon the subject. It was time, however, now to bury the dead out of his sight, and his want of means could no longer be concealed. But, alas! when it was known, how was it to be remedied? The few pence that were among them all would not purchase even the meanest coffin! It was with a heavy heart, therefore, that George went to a carpenter, who resided a few miles off, with the intention of stating his circumstances fairly, and asking a coffin on credit, until he might earn sufficient to pay the cost. When he arrived at the place, however, he was told the man was from home, and would not be back until the next morning. Grievously disappointed he turned away. What was to be done? Should he wait until tomorrow, or make application elsewhere? He resolved upon the latter course. The undertaker of whom he thought lived in Leeds; in going to which town he was obliged to retrace the very path he had already traversed. When he turned a part of the road from whence his own cottage might be seen, he was astonished to perceive a carriage and horses drawn up before the little wicket-gate. Could it be so, or did his eyes deceive him? No; there was no deception, the coachman in rich livery was on the box, another servant similarly dressed loitered near the gate; and the horses were tossing their heads and pawing the ground, impatient of restraint. What did it all mean? He looked from the carriage to the cottage: the door was open, but nothing unusual was to be seen there. He hastened to the spot. He stood upon the threshold. He heard men's voices within. He entered. The same benevolent-looking gentleman whom he had seen in the printer's shop was there. Mr. Bingley also was with him. They were asking questions of his mother, who stood before them in tears: while Mary Jones at her side was glancing anxiously from one to the other of the visitors.

'And where is your son now, my good woman?' said Sir William Curtis.

'Alas! sir, he went this morning to see if he could get a coffin on credit, until he shall pay for it by his earnings, as he had not what would buy one. He will soon be here, I think, for he would not leave us long now.'

At this moment, Mary caught sight of George, and exclaimed, 'O, here he is!'

The two gentlemen immediately turned round. The benevolent countenance of the baronet lighting up with admiration, and seeming more benevolent than ever as he spoke:

'I have heard of your afflictions, young man,' he said, 'and generously feel for you and your widowed mother. Though it is not in my power to heal the wound that death has made, it is in my power to relieve the distresses of your situation. I came here to do a simple act of justice, by rewarding you for restoring my lost property. Your honesty was evident, but I little thought of the circumstances under which it was performed. In the midst of bitter poverty and severe temptation you forsook not the right path. You sought no reward for doing what was right. Yours was in truth honesty without policy, but you shall find that it was the best policy.'

A few years had fled. The cottage of the Smiths was in other hands. The Joneses too had left the neighbourhood; but in a midland county, and on the estate of Sir William Curtis, there was a thriving farm. Every thing about it had the evidence of prosperity. George was the owner. He had married Mary, and was settled in his present abode by the benevolent baronet, whose respect and esteem, we may add, he never forfeited.

A FEW WORDS ON BEHALF OF BIRDS.

I AM desirous of saying a few words on the cruel habit which too many boys practise, of robbing birds'-nests of their eggs and of their unfledged young ones.

I am willing to believe that this habit arises in a great degree from ignorance, and that many of you, when better instructed, will abandon it. Cruelty is always the companion of ignorance, and the cruel boy will generally grow up a hard-hearted man. You may perhaps be inclined to excuse yourselves by saying that you see grown-up persons practising it. I have heard, indeed, of one, among other cases, where persons boasted of having employed a morning in destroying a quantity of eggs, ignorant, most probably, whether they were those of the lark which at "heaven's gate sings," or melodious nightingale, or others of the feathered choir, who at early dawn or quiet eve, hymn their Creator's praise. But such excuses cannot be allowed; these persons probably in their younger days, were not better taught.

We will begin with a bird well-known to you, the HEDGE-SPARROW: which builds its nest early, and so little protected from observation, that its pretty blue-green eggs are the easy prey of the young birds'-nest hunter. It is in this nest that the cuckoo most frequently deposits its egg. The hedge-sparrow is a great frequenter of gardens, and is consequently an object of destruction by all who are ignorant that its chief food is worms, insects in all their states, but never fruit; thus great injury is caused by removing the natural protectors. Again, it is one of our earliest songsters, its note cheering the gloomy month of February.

The SPARROW. That there should be any of this industrious little bird left in the country—inhabitant alike of the smoky city and open field—is almost matter of surprise. Until a very recent period rewards were paid for its destruction, and the churchwardens' accounts exhibit a number paid for, that almost surpasses belief. Happily, this ignorant proceeding has yielded to better knowledge. Its value to our gardens will be best shown by the following account. The sparrow in the breeding season, feeds its young thirty-six times in an hour, about three-thousand five-hundred times in a week; and a writer of authority calculated the number of caterpillars conveyed to its nest, to be three-thousand four-hundred. If one pair consume so great a number of this destructive creature, the total number destroyed by these birds must be quite beyond calculation. Thus, though the sparrow can claim no merit as a songster, yet his utility is beyond dispute; and if, in severe weather, he does get a little grain from the stack, He—without whose knowledge not one of them falls to the ground, and who providently catereth for them—intended they should.

The FLYCATCHER: another very useful bird, employed constantly, as its name implies, in clearing the air of innumerable insects. Its mode of making its nest is very ingenious, as well as the odd places in which it is frequently placed. It is an interesting sight to see the young birds perched on a rail, and the incessant activity displayed by the parents in feeding them. These birds frequent gardens and orchards, and are called in some places cherry-suckers, from a mistaken notion that they feed on this fruit; but the fact is, that the flycatcher feeds on the flies that attack raspberry and currant and other fruit trees; and when, as is often the case, it falls a victim to the gardener's gun, the insects are left in undisturbed possession.

The SONG THRUSH: another bird whose beautiful voice alone, one might have thought, would have saved both eggs and nest from the destroyer. Its voice is not its only claim, for its natural food being insects, worms, and snails, its utility is very clear. Equally useful in this respect, is another of the same family—the MISSEL THRUSH, so called from its fondness for the berries of the misletoe; it pipes loudly also before a storm, perched on a tall tree, and from this cause is sometimes named the storm-cock. In summer it is an active devourer of worms, slugs, and soft-bodied animals. Many other birds might be mentioned, equally well known to you, but as I wish to say a few words on another class, I will mention that beautiful summer visitor — the REDSTART: it is stated, by those well acquainted with its habits, that during the breeding season, a pair of these birds visit their nest twenty-three times in an hour, that is, two-thousand two-hundred and fifty-four times in a week; and the insect which they thus carry, is the little green grub that infests the gooseberry tree, and of which they take more than one each visit.

The swallow tribe, whose fleetness of wing and ingenious mode of nest building you are all acquainted with, are often, I fear, the victims of your cruelty. It is a common remark that these birds are not so numerous any where, as was the case a few years ago. While here in the summer, their chief employment consists in clearing the air of numerous insects too minute for our eye, and which, without their aid, would render it unpleasant. The quantity they consume is almost beyond belief; there can be no excuse, therefore, on the score of the injury they do to the garden, for molesting them. In other countries they are carefully protected by the peasants, from the benefit they confer in devouring that very troublesome insect —the musquito.

The CUCKOO is not often, I believe, the object of egg stealers, most probably from the scarcity of its egg; but when this troublesome intruder is hatched, his first step is to get rid of his fellow nestlings, which, from his superior strength, he is generally enabled to do, these being found at the bottom of the nest, and the incessant clamour he keeps up for food, attract attention, and he is frequently taken in the vain hope of bringing him up. With great care he may struggle through the winter, but returning spring generally ends his life. This bird, so interesting to the naturalist and to all who delight in hearing its note, announcing more genial weather and the approach of summer, will, it is hoped, for the future be spared on these accounts.

The beautiful GOLDFINCH is also much sought after by young and old. Not long ago, some young ones were hatched in the writer's garden, but as the parent became a mark to a neighbouring gun, of course they fell a sacrifice to such a wanton piece of barbarity. Its use in the autumn is very great, from its feeding on the seed of the thistle, performing good service to the farmer, by consuming the source of many hurtful weeds.

I shall finish with the OWL: this curious bird is, I believe, chiefly destroyed by grown up persons, who ignorantly kill a bird which lives on mice, young rats, and insects; the consequence of such folly, is shown by the number of young peas devoured by the mice, which this bird might have killed. So great is their service in this respect, that some years ago when a very alarming number of mice spread over a district of a distant country, destroying a large portion of vegetation, the consequences would have been very serious, had not the owls followed and feasted on the mischievous intruders.

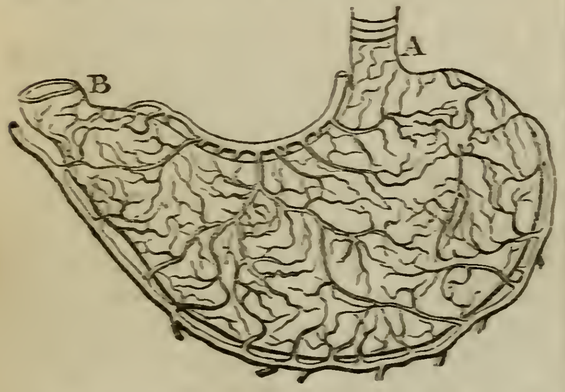
A CHAPTER ABOUT DIGESTION.

Human beings have often been compared to machines; and it is true that the machinery of the body is the most wonderful of any with which we are acquainted. But something is required to keep it going. A steam-engine, as most persons know, must be fed with coals and water to make it work; a clock must have a spring or weights, and be regularly wound up, or it stands still; a windmill must have wind, and a watermill must have water, or else they wont work. So the human body must be regularly supplied with food, and food of a proper sort, if it is to be kept in a good working condition. It is very interesting and important to know how this food is converted into working material, into living blood. A knowledge of the process will be useful to most readers in more ways than one: it will teach them to avoid many things that are hurtful, and to follow such rules as lead to health and comfort.

In a former number (*Fam. Econ.*, vol. ii, p. 46), we explained the way in which breathing is carried on; and if our readers will turn back to that chapter and read it over once more, they will be better able to understand the present subject.

Appetite, or the desire for food, is given to us that we may know when to eat, and give our stomach a sufficient supply. If we were not reminded by this sensation, we should sometimes forget to eat, and then our health would suffer. When persons are much troubled in mind, or very closely engaged in business, they in most cases have no desire for food. Appetite is not the same in all people; some can eat more and oftener than others; but we have the power to educate our appetite so as to be able to eat at times most convenient to ourselves. Some persons need their dinner at twelve or one o'clock, while others can wait till five or six in the afternoon, without eating more beforehand than a small slice of bread or a biscuit. People may be left to please themselves in this matter, provided they do not sacrifice time or health to the indulgence of appetite.

When food is taken into the stomach it undergoes what is called *digestion*, which is entirely a chemical process. If sealing-wax be put into spirits of wine, it will gradually dissolve and become liquid; gum will dissolve in water; and if bones be stewed a long time in a steam-tight saucepan, they will give out a quantity of jelly; and these may be taken as examples of what is meant by digestion. The first step towards it is to prepare the food properly in the mouth by chewing; and here the sense of taste is of great service, for the more we relish our food, the more in general do we chew it; and the more we chew it the better will the stomach be able to digest it. For this reason we ought not to hurry over our meals. Those who eat fast generally eat too much, while moderately slow eaters take no more than nature really requires. Besides being chewed, the food is also moistened in the mouth by the saliva or spittle which flows in from the glands on each side near the throat. Often when we are hungry the smell of food will make the saliva flow: when a child feels this he is very apt to say 'my mouth waters.' As soon as the food is sufficiently broken up and moistened, the tongue collects it into one lump, or *bolus*, as it is called, and carries it to the back of the mouth, and delivers it to the pharynx a sort of bag, which seizes on the morsel and passes it to the œsophagus, or food-pipe, which reaches from the throat to the stomach. This pipe may be felt from the outside; it resembles a number of gristly rings piled one on the other inside of a tough skin. Those persons who have seen an animal cut up will remember its appearance. It has the power of contracting, or shrinking together; and as soon as the morsel enters, the rings of the pipe close one after the other and so force the food downwards. It does not descend by its own weight as many persons suppose; for if any one eats while standing on his head the pipe still shrinks in the same way, and forces the food upwards to the stomach. If we watch a horse while he is grazing or drinking, we shall see that all he swallows goes upwards before it reaches his stomach, which could not be the case were it not for the contraction of the œsophagus.



This figure represents the stomach covered with its veins and blood-vessels. A. is the cardiac orifice, so called because it is nearest the heart; it is here that the food enters.

B. Pyloric orifice, by which the food passes when digested. It must not be supposed that the stomach is a separate bag; it is only a larger portion of the tube which commences at the throat, and continues without a break to the lowest extremity of the bowels.

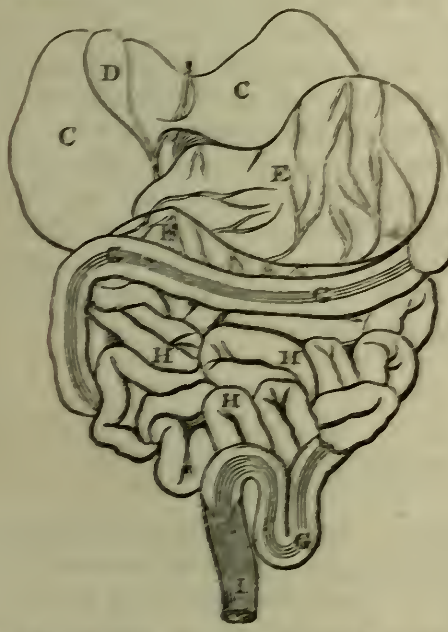
The stomach is a bag composed of three coats or layers; the outer one is of a shining yellowish white colour, the middle one is fleshy and muscular, and the inner one is of a pale pink colour, and covered with thousands of little folds or wrinkles, giving it somewhat the appearance of velvet. They may be seen very plainly in tripe, but are not so large or distinct in the human stomach. The whole is surrounded by veins and blood-vessels; and as soon as the food has entered the stomach an additional quantity of blood flows into the veins, and the pale pink becomes a deep red colour. At the same time, all the points of the inner coat pour out a thin clear fluid called the *gastric juice;* presently the food is covered with it, and then the process of digestion begins. More food enters, and the whole is kept moving round and round in the larger end of the stomach, until it is gradually dissolved or digested by the acid, and is changed into chyme, a yellowish gray fluid, about the consistence of gruel, or thin batter. This chyme flows downwards to the small end of the stomach, called the pyloric orifice, which opens to let it pass into the *duodenum*, or first portion of the small bowels. There is a wonderful contrivance about this pyloric orifice,—it gives free passage to the chyme; but makes great difficulty of allowing any thing to pass which has not been properly digested. Such things will, however, sometimes force their way through; but nature will not be trifled with, and so she pays off those who are not careful in the choice of food with stomach-aches, colics, and other pains equally uncomfortable.

The gastric juice only makes its appearance in the stomach when food or any thing which it can act on is placed therein; it collects and trickles down, in the same way that we see perspiration run on the outer skin. It has been proved many times that this juice really dissolves the food. Some scientific men have swallowed small silver tubes or globes pierced with holes and filled with meat, and on bringing them up about four hours afterwards, the meat has been found dissolved. Dr. Beaumont, an American physician, had a patient whose stomach had been wounded by accident, and the parts never grew together again, so that the doctor could look into the man's stomach and see what was going on there. He made some very valuable experiments, which have very much increased our knowledge of the process of digestion. Among others, he ascertained that if he passed portions of food through the opening into the stomach, the man was as well satisfied as though he had chewed and swallowed it. He took out some of the gastric juice, and put it with small pieces of meat in a phial, and by keeping it at the proper warmth, the meat was dissolved the same as though it had been in the stomach. The same effect can be produced by using muriatic acid, a proof that this acid and gastric juice are somewhat identical.

Digestion is complete when the chyme has left the stomach; and then commences the process of *assimilation*, or the making similar: in other words, to change food into blood; inorganic matter into organic matter; death into life.

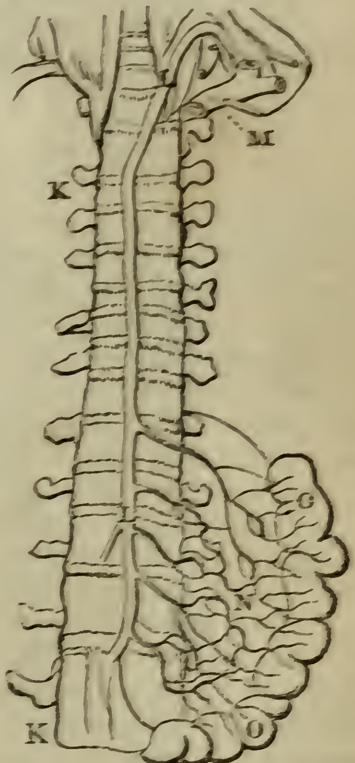
The liver, as is pretty well known,

secretes or makes bile, and keeps it ready for use in a small bag called the gall-bladder; and when the chyme enters the duodenum the bile enters also, about two drops a minute, and at the same time the *pancreas* or sweet-bread pours in a fluid very similar to saliva. This fluid and the bile mingle with the chyme which thereupon separates into two different kinds of fluid; the one white and milky, called *chyle*, the other thick and gummy, and of a yellowish brown colour; the latter is the waste.



C C liver G G large bowels
D gall-bladder H H small bowels
E stomach I rectum.
F pancreas

The bowels or intestines in a grown person are from thirty to forty feet in length, of which the small intestines comprise more than twenty feet. One portion is called the duodenum, the next the jejunum, and the third the ileum, after which the large bowels begin. Well, no sooner is the *chyle* separated as above described, than the mouths of a number of little tubes or vessels open to receive it. The inside of the bowel is covered with these mouths in the same way as the skin is covered with pores for the perspiration; they are called *lacteals*, or milk-bearers, and they continue to suck in the chyle until none is left. Thus, it passes along the lacteals to the mesentery, a membrane which helps to keep the bowels in their place, and serves other important uses. One edge of it is attached to the whole length of the small intestines, so that it has somewhat the shape of a fan. The thousands of lacteals meet and join one another in the mesentery, and the chyle undergoes a further change, it becomes less watery than before, and more like the white of an egg. In this state it passes from the mesentery to a receiver prepared for it at the commencement of the *thoracic duct*, or chest pipe. Another set of vessels called *lymphatics* end also in the same place, and pour a clear thin watery juice, which unites with the chyle, and so the fluid is conveyed upwards along the duct until it reaches what is called the left subclavian vein under the collar bone, by which it is poured into the heart, and from thence is pumped into the lungs with the other blood, where the air combines with it, and thus, the wonderful process is finished, and life and health are maintained, for the blood carries nourishment to every part of the body.



K K spine N mesentery
L L thoracic duct O O intestine.
M subclavian vein

The lacteals are called absorbents, because they absorb or suck up the chyle; the precise way in which they do this is not clearly known. Some idea of their mode of action may be formed from looking at the root of a tree or plant. The smallest ends of the roots, or spongioles, may be compared to lacteals; they suck up moisture, and grow larger and larger by degrees, until they all meet and pour their contents into the stalk or stem: so the lacteals and some other absorbents meet in the thoracic duct. But there is one difference to be noticed. The spongioles of roots will suck up almost any sort of moisture; but the lacteals will only open their mouths for chyle, or what is nutritious; they will have nothing to do with the thick gummy fluid which passes along the small intestines at the same time.

This gummy fluid, as before stated, is waste; as it moves slowly onwards, many other waste matters from different parts are added to it, and thus it arrives at the first part of the large bowels called the *cœcum.* Here, and in the next part named the *colon*, it is prepared for expulsion from the body: it becomes thick and hard, and is forced gradually downwards by a peculiar action of the bowels called the peristaltic, or the worm-like movement: it resembles the crawling of an earth-worm. By this means the waste matters are pushed on till they reach the lowest extremity of the bowels, short and straight, known as the *rectum*, and thus are finally cast out from the body. If they were not so removed, much illness and mischief would follow. Every person ought to know that a regular habit of voiding the contents of the bowels is of much consequence in maintaining health.

The temperature or warmth of the stomach during digestion, is about 100 degrees of the thermometer; the process goes on without any effort of our own, and happy for us that it is so; for we are so liable to be disturbed by business, pleasure, or anxiety, that if digestion were left to our own control, we should seldom find time to attend to it. But there is one point which is in our power, and that is *eating.* Whether we shall eat wisely or unwisely depends on ourselves, and this part of the subject will be treated of in a future chapter.

HOW TO PROSPER IN BUSINESS.

In the first place, make up your mind to accomplish whatever you undertake; decide upon some particular employment; persevere in it. All difficulties are overcome by diligence and assiduity. Be not afraid to work with your own hands, and diligently too. "A cat in gloves catches no mice." "He who remains in the mill grinds," not he who "goes and comes." Attend to your business, and never trust it to another. "A pot that belongs to many is ill stirred and worse boiled." Be frugal. "That which will not make a pot will make a pot-lid." "Take care of the pence, and the pounds will take care of themselves." Be abstemious. "Who dainties love shall beggars prove." Rise early. "The sleeping fox catches no poultry." "Plough deep while sluggards sleep, and you will have corn to sell and keep." Treat every one with respect and civility. "Everything is gained, and nothing lost by courtesy." Good manners insure success. Never anticipate wealth from any other course than labour; especially never place dependence upon becoming the possessor of an inheritance. "He who waits for dead men's shoes may go for a long time barefoot." "He who runs after a shadow has a wearisome race." Above all things, never despair. "God is where He was." "Heaven helps those who help themselves." Follow implicitly these precepts, and nothing can hinder you from prospering.

RECIPES,

AND ANSWERS TO INQUIRERS.

German Yeast.—The article so called is regularly imported, and may be obtained fresh twice a-week—on Mondays and Thursdays. The smallest quantity sold in London is a quarter of a pound, which costs three-pence, and is sufficient to raise a peck of flour. It is in dry balls, and easily crumbles to powder. It is to be moistened with warm water, and then quickly introduced into the flour, and set to rise in the same manner as common yeast. One hour is a proper time for rising before putting into the oven. The bread produced is very light and soft—more resembling the texture of that raised by the chemical bread-powders, than of that raised by common yeast. Indeed, it is pretty evident that the German yeast is a chemical composition of a somewhat similar kind. It must be used fresh—will not keep more than two or three days, and if exposed to the least degree of damp, or if agitated by a blow or fall, is entirely spoiled. Either of these accidents occasions a mingling together of the ingredients, and it immediately becomes moist and stringy, like putty; and the property which would fit it to expand the flour is lost. This article may be preferred as a matter of taste, but clearly cannot be recommended as a matter of economy; and, if the texture of the bread produced by it be taken as a test, it is not the same article as that used under the name of "Hamburgh Yeast" by the celebrated makers of rusks and tops-and-bottoms.

To make Muffins.—Both muffins and crumpets are best baked on an iron plate, over a furnace, or on the "hot hearths" used in the north of England, for baking the thin oat cakes. But they may be done very well in a perfectly clean frying-pan, over a clear cinder fire. In the latter case the pan must be previously warmed, by holding in front of the fire, or any other method which will heat without burning, and slightly greased with fresh butter the moment before the muffins are put in. *Ingredients.*—Dried flour, full two pounds. Butter from one to two ounces; milk, rather more or rather less than a pint, according to the quantity of batter. Solid yeast, a quarter of a pint. *Method of mixing.*—Warm the milk; stir most of it to the yeast and strain. In the little milk that remains melt the butter. As soon as melted, remove it from the fire and add it to the strained milk and yeast. Stir them together, and mix them with as much of the flour as will bring it to the stiffness of batter, then cover up, and set in a warm place to rise. When it has done so, which, if near a good fire, will be in twenty minutes or half-an-hour; add the remainder of the flour, work the whole into dough, cover it up, and let it again stand beside or before the fire for half-an-hour. Again knead the lump and break it into bits, the size of an egg. Throughout the whole process, the dough must be kept very warm; all must be done close to the fire, and as quickly as possible. Every vessel that the dough touches should be warm.—Each of the bits into which the dough is divided, is to be lightly rolled in the hands like a dumpling, and as fast as done, slipped under a flannel on to a hot dish or tin. By the time the last is rolled, the first will be ready for baking. Flatten them a little and put on the plate, or in the frying pan. As soon as one side becomes a very little browned, turn—a minute will do the second side. Stand them on edge along a dresser till cool. If more convenient, all the ingredients may be mixed at once, and when thoroughly kneaded, left two or three hours to rise, care being taken to keep it very warm.

Crumpets are prepared exactly in the same way as muffins, except that no more flour is to be added than will bring the whole to the stiffness of thin batter, so that it will just pour. Let it stand a quarter of an hour or twenty minutes to rise before baking. Be careful that the plate or pan is not overheated. If made in a jug or lipped basin the mixture may be poured. If otherwise, lade out with butter-boat, tea-cup, or large spoon. A gravy spoon will carry quite enough for one crumpet, as they should be very thin. They will be ready for turning very quickly—in less time than a pancake—or the top may be browned with a salamander, in which case they will not require turning at all.

To make forty excellent Whigs.—To three pounds of flour, put half-a-pound of lard, half-a-pound of moist sugar, with some salt, nutmeg, and ginger. Rub it well together, lay a leaven with three tablespoonfuls of yeast, and three or four potatos mashed through a colander lukewarm, with a little warm milk; put it to the fire for about an hour, then roll out the rolls, put them in warm tins, polish them with milk, let them stand an hour or two, and bake them for a quarter of an hour.

A light Biscuit.—Half-pound of flour, three ounces of butter or fresh lard, two ounces of sugar, one egg, half a teaspoonful of volatile salts.

Medley Pickle.—To two quarts of vinegar put a quarter of a-pound of salt, two ounces of ginger, two ounces of shalots or garlic, a tea-spoonful of cayenne pepper, an ounce of mustard-seed, an ounce of whole white pepper, and a stick of horse-radish. Boil them in the vinegar in a stone pickle jar. When cold put into the jar what green fruits or vegetables you please, fresh-gathered, only wipe the dust from them.

Canada Balsam.—This balsam, which s very useful to farmers and mechanics, and principally known as an ingredient in varnishes, may be had from the druggists. It is the pure, unadulterated sap, or turpentine of the American Pine, and is the only remedy for wounds within reach of the backwoodsmen of Canada. It is also used by the Laplanders and other northern nations. See that the wound be perfectly free from splinters, gravel, and all other irritating substances. If a cut, bring the edges of the wound together, pour some of the balsam upon a bit of lint or linen rag folded and lay it on the injured part. Bind it up, and on no account disturb it unless it becomes painful, thereby indicating that the balsam does not agree with it. If it gets ruffled or loose, it may be necessary to apply a fresh dressing of balsam, but it generally adheres firmly, keeps the wound cool, and does its work of healing steadily, coming away when its part is done, and the flesh sound. The balsam has also been successfully applied to indolent sores after blisters, or where the skin has been otherwise frayed.

For animals simply apply the balsam either with or without rag or lint, according to the part injured. It will harden of itself, and form a sufficient protection against the air and the flies.

A Remedy for a Burn, which will remove the pain in a few minutes.—Half-a-pound of camphor broken up in a pint of good rum. Keep it well corked and tied over with a bit of bladder. Apply it with a linen rag to the part affected.

Waterproof Boots.—A pint of boiled linseed oil, half-a-pound of mutton suet, six ounces of clean bees'-wax, and four ounces of rosin are to be melted and well-mixed over a fire. Of this while warm, but not hot enough to shrink the leather, with a brush lay on plentifully over new boots or shoes, when quite dry and clean. The leather remains pliant. The New England fishermen preserve their boots water-tight by this method, which, it is said, has been in use among them above 100 years. They can thus stand in water hour after hour without inconvenience.

To remove Tartar from the Teeth.—1st. The use of the tooth-brush night and morning, and at least rinsing the mouth after every meal at which animal food is taken. 2nd. Once daily run the brush lightly two or three times over soap, then dip it in salt, and with it clean the teeth, working the brush up and down rather than—or as well as—backwards and forwards. This is a cheap, safe, and effectual dentifrice. 3rd. Eat freely of common cress, the sort used with mustard, under the name of small salad; it must be eaten with salt only. If thus used two or three days in succession it will effectually loosen tartar, even of long standing. The same effect is produced, though perhaps not in an equal degree, by eating strawberries and raspberries, especially the former. A leaf of common green sage rubbed on the teeth is useful both in cleansing and polishing, and probably many other common vegetable productions also.

WANT OF THOUGHT.

Time to me this truth has taught,
('Tis a truth that's worth revealing,)
More offend from want of thought
Than from any want of feeling;
If advice we would convey,
There's a time we should convey it,
If we've but a word to say,
There's a time in which to say it.

Oft unknowingly the tongue
Touches on a chord so aching,
That a word or accent wrong,
Pains the heart almost to breaking;
Many a tear of wounded pride,
Many a fault of human blindness
Has been soothed or turned aside
By a quiet voice of kindness.

Many a beauteous flower decays,
Though we tend it e'er so much;
Something secret in it preys,
Which no human aid can touch.

So in many a lovely breast
Lies some canker-grief concealed,
That if touched is more oppressed,
Left unto itself is healed!
—Charles Swain.

SPORTS AND PASTIMES FOR BOYS.

KITE FLYING.

Boys require amusement as well as learning or labour. Some parents are for keeping their boys always at work either with head, or hands, forgetful of the requirements of nature, and that they are injuriously taxing the powers of mind and body. It is a main part of domestic economy to maintain health in the members of a family, without which happiness certainly cannot be had. *Play* is necessary for the health and happiness of children; hence the quaint old couplet,—

"All work and no play,
Makes Jack a dull boy."

But in point of fact, *work* may be made play; contrive to interest the minds of boys in any matter, and then, however hard or difficult it may be, they will find their amusement in it.

There are other parents who are worried by their children perpetually teasing them with 'I don't know what to do, I wish I had something to play at.' Instead of devising a harmless sport, or a game conveying useful instruction, the reply too frequently is, 'There, do anything you like, only don't plague me.' Thus boys are left too much to their own resources, and frequently fall into bad habits or evil company.

Boys at school are often at a loss for new games; they require the excitement of something *new;* or rather, of continual change in their sports; so we find they adopt the general round of hoops, tops, kites, marbles, &c., in order to keep up an interest in their play.

We purpose to give a little assistance to all parties, to try to please both parents and boys; but young friends, remember, that the wisest man says, "there is a time for work," as well as a "time for play," and do not therefore abuse your liberty by idleness, but "work while you work, and play while you play."

Kites afford excellent amusement, both in making and flying them. Our own boys have one upwards of six feet high, with a tail sixty feet long. When the wind is favourable we are accustomed to employ this kite in towing a boat on the Thames. In a strong breeze we are drawn along with great rapidity and steadiness, even up stream. A kite of such a size requires very strong string or small cord to fly it, as it pulls so that one person cannot hold it. When it is mounted we usually fasten the cord to a gate or post. The kites that are bought at shops are poor things. It is much better that boys should make their own; this affords an exercise of their ingenuity, as well as an amusement. A lath called a *straighter* must be procured, four feet long, an inch wide, and a quarter of an inch thick. The *bender* must be a cane or hoop planed thin at the edges, and should be of the same length as the straighter. Tie the cane firmly on the end of lath, as at A in figure 1: bend down the ends C and D, and fasten them in the bent position by strings passing from the points as shewn, where notches must be cut, in order that the string may not slip on being tied. When this is done the frame of the kite is completed.

Fig. 1.

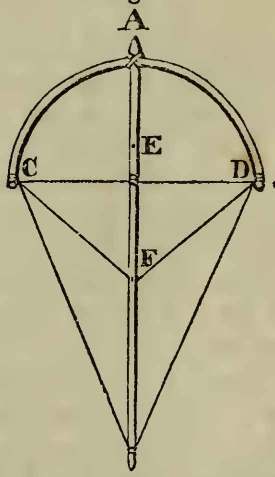
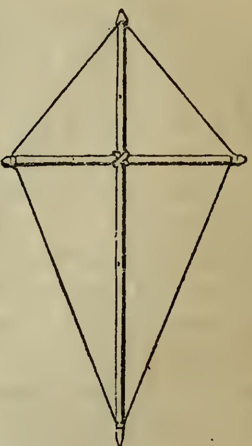


Fig. 2.



The best thing to cover it with is thin glazed calico, as it may be put on all in one piece. If paper is used, the sheets must first be pasted together with the edges lapping over each other about half an inch. Lay the frame on the calico or paper, cut it out to the shape, leaving an inch to be turned over and pasted to the frame. Some small pieces must then be pasted over the lath and the strings at the back to keep it secure in the middle. Two holes must be made in the straighter at E and F, through which a piece of strong string is to be put, and fastened at each end with a knot, to keep it from coming through the holes. This is called the *belly-band.* The string to fly the kite with is to be tied to this belly-band ; care must be taken to tie it in the right place, if it be too low, the kite will turn round and round in the air, if too high, it will plunge about and pitch. A little experience will soon teach the proper place to fasten it. The tail should be at least ten times as long as the kite. It is much better not to have slips of paper tied into it, but only a *bob* at the end ; that is, a large tassel made of paper cut into fringes, and sufficiently heavy to keep the kite in its true position in the air. Tails made with slips are nearly always troublesome from getting entangled ; and as the wind shakes them more than it does a plain string, the kite is not so steadily balanced.

When the kite is flying you may send up a *messenger*, which is a round piece of paper, or card-board with a hole in the middle, this is put on the string, and the wind soon carries it up to the kite.

A hollow tube of paste-board, with four little sails attached, forms another kind of messenger. The sails are to be made of coloured paper, similar to the little windmills often sold in the streets. When the tube is placed on the string, the wind acting on the sails, causes the messenger to rotate or spin round ; and this, as it ascends, forms a very pretty object.

Kites are frequently made of other shapes. Fig. 2 is another form, which is called a *drake;* but that we have described Fig. 1 is the best in form, as well as for flying.

We well recollect our astonishment and delight as school-boys, one fine afternoon, many years ago, at seeing two large kites sailing along over our play-ground. Having obtained permission, we ran in haste to the street, and there saw a gentleman taking a journey in a small carriage drawn by the kites. The cord becoming entangled in the church steeple, afforded us amusement for some time in witnessing the management required to extricate it ; but this being at length accomplished, the kite-drawn traveller speedily progressed on his journey from London to Bath, which we afterwards heard he accomplished successfully.

HOUSEHOLD ECONOMY.

STOCKINGS, BONNETS, AND SHOES.

Stockings.—If the legs are good, it may be worth while to knit new feet to them. The knitting need not be done so fine as the original work, which probably was woven. In picking up the loops the number may be reduced according to the size of the pins. If one third less is desired, knit the first round thus—knit one stitch, then knit two loops in one, repeat these two stitches throughout the round. If half the existing number of loops is deemed sufficient return thus—1st round, knit two loops as they are, then knit two as one, repeat then three stitches to the end of the round—2nd round, knit plain, without any reduction. 3rd round, knit two loops as one, knit one loop as it is, repeat these two stitches throughout the round ; that the loops that were not reduced in the first round will be reduced in this. Afterwards proceed to work the heel and foot in the regular proportions according to the number of loops as they now stand. The stockings thus repaired will last longer than a new pair of bought stockings, perhaps longer than two. A good quick knitter may find this method answer.

To Foot Stockings by Piecing.—First take a paper pattern of the stocking beginning just above the commencement of the heel ; and cutting separately the piece that forms the sole. Lay the paper pattern on the stocking so high as that the toe shall come above any thin part on the instep, and the bottom of the paper heel above any thin part in the stocking heel ; cut out by the pattern—but allow sufficient for rather a wide turning. If no stocking pieces are at hand, the sole part may be cut the bias way out of thick twilled calico or any other stout calico. It should be folded double bias-wise, so that the double edge may go along the part that is to be joined to the front of the heel. Thus a turning is saved, and the seam lies more flat. This seam had better be sewed, the heel part being turned back and herring-boned. The seam at the bottom of the heel, and that round the toe strongly stitched, the raw edges turned back singly and herring-boned. The top of the stocking may require lengthening, for which purpose twilled, or other calico may be used, either double or single, but cut the bias way. If the stocking of a grown person is to be made up for a child, a paper pattern should be cut the whole length of the required size. Lay this, the top of the pattern to the top of the stocking; one side as near to the leg seam as only to allow a turning when cut. A new seam must be made; but by cutting close to the old seam on one side, the pieces that come out are large, and of more value for mending. If the size be considerably reduced, the piece out of the leg will serve for the sole piece, and be more durable than the lower part of the stocking. In all stocking piecing, especial care must be taken to avoid puckering, and to finish off the seams as flat as possible.

Bonnets.—If a straw bonnet is not worth the expense of properly cleaning, it may be greatly improved both in comfort and appearance by washing it with soap and water applied by means of a bit of flannel or sponge. Afterwards rinse with clean water, and dry quickly in the air. When dry, wash over with the white of an egg finely beaten. The wire had better be removed before washing, and put on afresh. There is no great art in reducing a straw bonnet for a child. Take off all the ribs of straw that form a sort of border by going round the edge; as many also of the straight ribs as will leave the front nearly of the depth required. From the remaining front ribs cut off a little at each end; fasten the ends securely, and again set on the border ribs. Unpick the sewing of the head-piece, till two, three, or more of the top rounds are taken off, so as to bring it to the size required. Then sew again as many as will bring it to a proper depth. It is not intended to say, that a person who never learnt the art of straw bonnet-making, and has not the proper blocks, &c., will do it as well as one who has, but any notionable needle-woman may do it, so as to look much better than a large bonnet on the small head of a child. A bonnet shape of pasteboard or buckram, may be renewed by laying it between two sheets of damp paper, and ironing with a hot iron. The wire must be previously removed and afterwards put on afresh. To clean silk and ribbons, wash in cold rain water with a very little soap; avoid squeezing and wringing. If very dirty two waters may be requisite; the second may be slightly blued, unless the colour of the silk forbids it, (as yellow or red.) Spread on a clean towel, and while damp, iron with a piece of clean paper placed between the silk or ribbon and the iron. I should be afraid to say, not from fear of exceeding the truth, but for fear of not gaining credit with some readers, how many times Mrs. Brown's silk bonnet has been thus vamped up and brought out afresh. But this I can boldly testify, that after at least six years wear, it looks better than many a dashing bonnet of last summer, which has been worn and kept without proper care.

Shoes.—One hint about shoes—a most essential and expensive article of family wear. However worn and full of holes the soles may be, if the upper leathers are whole, or soundly mended, and the stitching firm, the soles may be covered with the newly adopted article gutta percha, and at a very small expense the shoes will be rendered as good as new. For the method of doing this, see *Fam. Econ.*, vol. i. p. 198. We have seen shoes which even the eldest daughter of the Smith family despised as not worth carrying home, made quite sound and respectable in appearance, and to serve many months in constant wear, by being thus soled at the cost of only a few pence. Thin shoes that have been worn only in-doors, and which are laid aside on account of the tops becoming shabby, perhaps worn out, while the sewing is sound, may be made very tidy by covering with woollen cloth, or with a bit of thick knitting, or platted list, stitched on as close as possible to the regular seam. I have seen Mrs. Brown with a pair of boots covered with black jean, so neatly, that without close inspection they might easily be mistaken for new boots bought of a regular maker. This is surely better than wearing them in slatternly holes, till they drop off the feet and are thrown away as good for nothing.

STINGING NETTLES.

The common or large nettle is known by grievous experience to every one, though perhaps you have never yet inquired whence the pain arises from touching it. The sting is not, like a pin or needle, solid throughout, but is hollow at the centre and perforated at the point ; and, when touched, it is not only sharp enough to pierce the skin, but also is so constructed as to inject a particle of poisonous fluid into the wound it makes, and this is the source of the pain which follows. The wound itself is so minute that it could scarcely be felt ; but the poison irritates, inflames and causes the well-known pain alluded to. The plant, the small species of which stings the most severely, is covered all over with hairs ; but, by using a microscope or magnifying-glass, you may perceive that these are not all of one kind, some being perforated, which are the stings, while others are not. Each sting stands upon a pedestal, and the pedestal performs the office both of gland and poison-bag. It is cellular and spongy within ; the sting is placed on its top, and may be moved by a slight pressure to either side, or round in a circle ; it seems to stand, as it were, on a universal joint. When a body touches its point, the base is pressed down into the spongy pedestal, and the poisonous fluid rushes up through the tube of the sting, and flows out at its point.—*Drummond's Letters*

EDUCATION OF THE HEART.

It is the vice of the age to substitute learning for wisdom—to educate the head, and forget there is a more important education necessary for the heart. The reason is cultivated at an age, when nature does not furnish the elements necessary to a successful cultivation of it; and the child is solicited to reflection, when it is only capable of sensation and emotion. In infancy, the attention and the memory are only excited strongly by the senses, and move the heart ; and the father may instil more solid and available instruction in an hour spent in the fields, where wisdom and goodness are exemplified, seen and felt, than in a month spent in the study, where they are expounded in stereotyped aphorisms.

No physician doubts that precocious children, in fifty cases for one, are much the worse for the discipline they have undergone. The mind seems to have been strained, and the foundation for insanity is laid.

When the studies of maturer years are stuffed into the head of a child, people do not reflect on the anatomical fact, that the brain of an infant is not the brain of a man ; that the one is confirmed, and can bear exertion, the other is growing, and requires repose ; that to force the attention to abstract facts ; to load the memory with chronological and historical, or scientific detail ; in short, to expect a child's brain to bear with impunity the exertions of a man's is as irrational as it would be to hazard the same sort of experiment on its muscles.

The first eight or ten years of life should be devoted to the education of the heart—to the formation of principles, rather than to the acquirement of what is usually termed knowledge. Nature herself points out such a course, for the emotions are the liveliest and most easily moulded, being as yet unalloyed by passion. It is from this source that the mass of men are hereafter to show their sum of happiness or misery ; the actions of the immense majority are, under all circumstances determined much more by feeling than reflection ; in truth, life presents an infinity of occasions where it is essential to happiness that we should feel rightly ; very few, where it is necessary that we should think profoundly.

Up to the seventh year of life, very great changes are going on in the structure of the brain, and demand, therefore, the utmost attention not to interrupt them by improper or over-excitement. Just that degree of exercise should be given to the brain at this period that is necessary to its health, and the best is moral instruction, exemplified by objects which strike the senses.

It is, perhaps, unnecessary to add, that at this period of life special attention should be given both by parents and teachers, to the physical development of the child. Pure air, and free exercise are indispensable, and wherever they are withheld, the consequences will be certain to extend themselves over the whole future life. The seeds of protracted and hopeless suffering have, in innumerable instances, been sown in the constitution of the child, simply through ignorance of this great fundamental physical law ; and the time has come when the united voices of those innocent victims should ascend, "trumpet-tongued," to the ears of every parent and every teacher in the land. "Give us fresh air and wholesome exercise ; leave our expanding energies to be developed in accordance with the laws of our being, and full scope for the elastic and bounding impulses of our young blood."—*Quarterly Review.*

THE MOON.

Next to the sun, the moon is to us the most interesting of all the celestial orbs. She is the constant attendant of the earth, and revolves around it in twenty-seven days eight hours, but the period from one new moon to another is about twenty-nine days twelve hours. She is the nearest of all the heavenly bodies, being only about 240,000 miles distant from the earth. She is much smaller than the earth, being only 2180 miles in diameter, and that of the earth is about 7930. Her surface, when viewed with a telescope, presents an interesting and varied aspect, being diversified with mountains, valleys, rocks, and plains, in every variety of form and position. Some of these mountains form long and elevated ridges, while others, of a conical form, rise to a great height from the middle of level plains ; but the most singular feature of the moon, is those circular ridges and cavities which diversify every portion of her surface. A range of mountains, of a circular form, rising three or four miles above the level of the adjacent districts, surrounds, like a mighty rampart, an extensive plain ; and, in the middle of this plain or cavity, an insulated conical hill rises to a considerable elevation. Several hundreds of these circular plains, most of which are considerably below the level of the surrounding country, may be perceived with a good telescope, on every region of the lunar surface. They are of all dimensions, from two or three miles to forty miles in diameter ; and must present to the view of a spectator, placed among them, a more varied, romantic, and sublime scenery than is to be found on the surface of our globe. The lunar mountains are of all sizes, from a furlong to five miles in perpendicular elevation. The bright spots on the moon are the mountainous regions, the dark spots are the plains, or more level parts of her surface. There may probably be rivers, or small lakes, on this planet ; but there are no seas or large collections of water.—*Dick's Christian Philosopher*

COTTAGE FARMER'S CALENDAR.

BY MARTIN DOYLE—APRIL.

The Field.—Throughout this month sow barley. Experience proves that early-sown grain yields better than that sown later, if the soil be in a fit condition, in every respect. Under favouring circumstances of mellowness and warmth, the land which was sown at the close of last month will probably be more productive than that which, under corresponding circumstances, will not be sown with barley until the close of the present one, or the commencement of May. The favourite kinds of barley for a loamy soil in a fertile state, are the chevalier and the golden drop, each of which is very productive under a proper management. On inferior soils a coarser and hardier sort will be the most suitable ; for poor land cannot nourish a stem able to bear a heavy ear, and must be cropped accordingly. As a general rule in selecting seed-barley, take that which is plump, thin-skined, and of a bright colour. It may not be amiss to remark, that plants brought from superior climates and soils, will not thrive on inferior soils and in cold climates ; whereas, those which are taken from inferior soils and climates to better, improve. It should, therefore, be the care of cultivators to take advantage of this order of Providence. For example, the coarse-grained barley, called bere or bigg, cultivated in the northern parts of the British Islands, will to a certainty succeed in the more southern parts,(where it may be prudent to grow it under certain circumstances,) and advance in its quality, though a variety of higher degree, such as the Egyptian barley, will as certainly degenerate if removed to the northern climate. We have hardy varieties of oats of established excellence in Scotland, such as the Angus or Hopetoun, which, for the reason just assigned, will be desirable for the English grower whose soil and climate may render the success of finer kinds doubtful. Provide the seed best suited to your land and climate, even if you pay what you may consider dearly for it. It is but the first cost—you save your own seed afterwards. By observing due economy in sowing it, you will gain more than if you were to sow cheaper seed of less fruitfulness, or yielding a grain for which the maltster has no fancy. Seed that costs little is often wasted in the sowing, merely because it is cheap; and we may add, that it must be sown more freely, if it be at all of uncertain growth.

If you do not dibble your barley or oats—sow them both in drills. With respect to the former grain (for the other ought to be now above ground) the drills should be, in light soils within nine inches, and in strong, rich, loamy land, at intervals, varying from twelve to sixteen inches, according to the degrees of mellowness and fertility, and covered less in clayey than in light open soil. The poorest land requires most seed. The field cannot be too well prepared for barley; therefore a previous crop of manured roots, perfectly hoed and cleaned, will have been the best preparation, not only for the barley but for the clover-seed, which in most cases should be sown immediately after the barley, and rolled after a bush-harrow. The plants will come up freely between the drills of corn, and afterwards spread over the whole surface. Clover-seed is often bad. Its germinating powers can be easily tested by this simple process, recommended by the late M. Dombasle, a celebrated French agriculturist. The same test will evidently serve for any sorts of small seeds, both of field and garden.—Put two bits of coarse cloth or flannel, previously wetted, in the bottom of a saucer one over the other. Scatter some of the seeds which you want to prove, over this double cloth, and so that no two seeds shall stick together. Cover them with a third piece of moistened cloth—the same as the others. Place the saucer in a moderately warm spot as over a fireplace. After a few days, examine if the uppermost piece of cloth is beginning to dry up. If so moisten it, so that the three pieces may imbibe moisture; but as the seeds would rot if they were soaked in the water, instead of being merely in a damp state, you must drain off the water which has not been absorbed by the cloths, by inclining the saucer to one side. To watch the daily progress of the bursting grains shooting forth their germs, or the mouldiness which, in some cases, takes place very quickly in seeds that have lost their vegetating powers, you have only to lift up the upper piece of cloth. By this means you can easily judge whether old grains have been mixed with the new, as these germinate much more rapidly, and you can thus ascertain in what proportions your whole quantity of seed is defective. The seeds of clover, lucerne, and lettuces, sprout on the third day if they be fresh and healthy. Other kinds take longer time, but until mouldiness appears the seeds are capable of germinating. By squeezing one or two seeds between your fingers, you will see whether the germ be still sound or not; if it be sound, wait longer. Some seeds preserve their germinating powers so long, that it is not necessary to have them fresh, a matter of which seedsmen are well aware. Sow mangel-wurzel (cattle beet) in drills, well-manured, twenty-six inches apart, and drop the seeds on the top of the drill when rolled, ten inches apart. Plant potatos, but not so extensively as *to depend* on them for food—the failure may occur again. In most cases the cottager plants the sets too thickly. For the late kinds let there be from two and a-half to three feet between the rows. If there be not room for the stems to grow out freely, and the roots to stretch forth, and for air to penetrate through the foliage, there will be a poor crop. In land rich and deeply dug, with manure mixed through it in the digging, nothing more is necessary than to draw the line, and dibble in the sets. If these be uncut, and of middling or large size, they should not be closer than fourteen, or farther than eighteen inches asunder in the row; if cut, nine inches apart. Land thus prepared ought to produce more abundantly from not being trodden by horses, and from being pulverized deeply. But the most usual way is to open drills, put manure into them, lay the sets on the manure, and then cover them up from the earth in the intervals; or the sets, cut or uncut, may be laid with equal effect in dry land, over the sets; there will be no perceptible difference in the produce. But under any circumstances, let the soil be deepened to the utmost, and perfectly pulverized.

The cultivator who depends entirely on his spade for preparing his land, may sometimes find it difficult to dig the whole piece over in due time for commencing the planting of potatos, Jerusalem artichokes, cabbages, and other crops, which are grown in drills, from two and a-half to three feet asunder. In such cases he can dig, in the first instance, strips wide enough to receive his plants or even seeds as the case may be; and afterwards, as time permits, and the necessities of the growing plants require, he can complete the digging. This in potato planting especially, where circumstances may have unavoidably hindered the regular and early execution of the work, may be a useful hint. Fresh stable litter answers well for potatos, and composts of any kind are also suited to them. But in no case will they grow more luxuriantly or be better for the table, than when grown on land previously limed, chalked or marled, and also lightly dunged at the time of planting. All the great elements of the food of the potato are contained in those putrescent and mineral substances. It is a foolish thing to reserve the refuse of potatos for seed as the poor are sometimes tempted or obliged to do. Endeavour to obtain potatos of medium size, and of the best variety known in your locality.

The Garden.—All the sowings enumerated in the calendar of the last month are to be continued. Successions of peas and beans should be especially regarded. The scarlet-runner, or the *grand prudhomme*, which in growth and outward appearance is like the former, and we think more prolific (its white seeds being excellent for the table in winter and spring) is now to be sown; it flowers and fruits during the whole season. The drills should not be near each other, or near those of peas and beans, to avoid the shading which they occasion to, or would receive from other rows. The dwarf prolific kidney-bean is one of the best kind of beans: the early magazan, the long-pod, and the Windsor, are sufficient varieties; and of peas, which have many names—the Bishop's dwarf, the early frame, Fairbeard's champion of England, and Hair's dwarf green mammoth, are as many as need be sown. These are considered the best kinds. Sow the white Spanish onion, and early purple, and early white brocoli, nonpareil, large green savoy, and borecole cabbages. Don't have an unoccupied spot at this important season.

ABOUT DUCKS.

Besides the common English duck, there is a very great variety of which, however, only three kinds are usually found in our farm-yard; these are the Rhone or Rouen Duck, the Muscovy, and the White Aylesbury.

The Rhone is dark-coloured, of rather large size, but is now almost entirely bred in with the native kind. The Muscovy, so called, not from its country, but from the strong musky odour it emits, is much larger than the common duck; in length it sometimes exceeds two feet, and nearly three feet measured across the wings, when they are extended. A red patch covers each side of the head. Its colour in its native state, is nearly black, shaded with shining green; with a stripe of white on the wings, and the bill and legs red. It is considered profitable from being more productive than others, and because it fattens very readily, but on account of its musky flavour, is generally discarded from the table. If, however, the glands near the tail, and the head be cut off as soon as the duck is killed, the disagreeable taste is removed, and the flesh somewhat resembles that of the wild-duck.

The White Aylesbury is the most ornamental, as well as the most profitable, and, of course, is on these accounts to be preferred. It is very plentiful in Buckinghamshire, from whence vast quantities are sent to the London markets.

Among all the varieties, the drake is larger than the duck, his colours are also more striking and brilliant; he is also distinguished by a tuft of feathers turning upwards at the tail. One drake is sufficient for six ducks.

February is the period when laying commences, and if not interrupted by setting, from fifty to sixty eggs are produced. A duck is reported to have laid eighty-five eggs in as many successive days.

During the laying-season, they must be well looked after, as they will deposit their eggs in any place where they may happen to be, sometimes even in the water. They are more difficult to keep in confinement than the goose, and there is more trouble in getting them to take to a nest, but as they usually lay in the night, or early in the morning, a little care in giving food near the place, and in preparing a nest will generally be sufficient, and when once accustomed to a nest, they seldom forsake it.

The anxiety of ducks for sitting, is not generally so great as with domestic fowls, and it often happens that they remain so long away from the nest, that the eggs become chilled, and spoiled in consequence. Hence *hens* are sometimes used for hatching ducks' eggs, not only from sitting better, but also from being more careful mothers in leading the young brood *from*, rather than *to*, the water, which is injurious to them when very young.

The number of eggs given for a duck to hatch is from eleven to fifteen. The period of sitting is thirty-one days. If the eggs are not of the duck's own laying, they should be all of the same colour as her own, as she will sometimes turn out from her nest those of a different shade, or those belonging to other ducks. During incubation or sitting, food must be placed beside her, and an opportunity may be sometimes afforded her for going into the water for a short period. The duck will often cover her eggs with hay or straw, or leaves in order to prevent them growing cool in her absence.

There is no necessity for removing the young ducklings as they are hatched, they are hardy, and may be left to the care of the parent. In fine weather, as soon as all are hatched, they may be allowed to run on the grass, the duck or hen, being confined under a coop, with food made of oat or barley-meal in water, near at hand.

In France, when the ducklings are a week or ten days old, they get mashed potatos, mashed acorns, vegetables boiled, chopped up, and mixed with bran.

Very soon they may begin to eat almost any thing, for ducks are so voracious, and so little particular as to kind or quality in their food, that any offal, however disgusting, seems not to come amiss to them. Thus Cobbett says, "A dead rat three-parts rotten is a feast for them." They seek their food ravenously, whether on land, in the water, or in mud; worms, slugs, snails, caterpillars, insects, &c. &c. are acceptable to them. Thus they are sometimes advantageously allowed to forage for themselves in gardens, where they effect good by destroying these creatures in addition to finding a great portion of their food. On this account the duck is the least expensive kind of live stock for any one to keep, and may be turned to profitable account by those who have the room, and will take the necessary pains to rear them. Young ducks should not be allowed to eat too gluttonously of slugs, or worms, or they will kill themselves in doing so.

It will not do to bring ducks to table if they have only been fed on such refuse food, or garbage. In order to fatten them, or to render their flesh delicate, it is necessary to give good oats, plenty of clean, fresh vegetables and water. Or as they do abroad, cram them with paste made of buck-wheat, or ground malt, mixed with milk, for eight or ten days, which makes them fat and well-flavoured. Ducks may also be fattened upon acorns of which they are very fond, the flesh is, however, not so tender or delicate as when fed by other means.

Cobbett further states—"I treat ducks precisely as I do my geese. I buy a troop when they are young, and put them in a pen, and feed them upon oats, cabbages, lettuces and water, and have the place kept very clean. My ducks are, in consequence of this, a great deal more fine and delicate than any others I know any thing of."

The feathers of ducks are not so valuable as those of the goose, but yet the profit to be derived from the eggs, the flesh, the feathers, and even from the dung, would be of considerable importance to the cottager, especially where there is the advantage of a free, open range, where there are ponds or marshes, or even a ditch in which they can forage out food for themselves.

ABOUT MANURES.

The manuring of land is a process which of late years has been diligently studied by chemists and agriculturists, and although very satisfactory results have been obtained, yet much remains to be done before the economy of manures—that is, the best mode of preparing and using fertilizing substances—can be properly understood or put into practice. We propose, therefore, to offer a few explanations which may be useful to those who make, and to those who use manure.

It is commonly supposed when the dead body of an animal putrefies and decays, that all, except the bones and other hard parts, is altogether lost and got rid of; and when heaps of leaves, branches, or such-like rubbish are burnt, many persons believe that they have seen the last of them. But in nature nothing is lost; a perpetual movement and change is going on in matter, (that is in the earth and every thing upon it,) which movement, in fact, is the cause of life. If a body has decayed, or a tree has been burnt, the materials of which they were composed are not destroyed, they have only changed their form, and instead of being solid masses which we can see, they are changed into vapours or gases which we cannot see, and float about in the air, until, in course of time, they again reappear in the formation of other plants and animals. Every animated being may be regarded as a chemical workshop, where particles are brought into new combinations for the purposes assigned to them by nature—where something dead is converted into something living. Animals are nourished by plants; plants are nourished by the earth and air. They live one by the other in beautiful harmony. Therefore, if a farmer wishes for good crops, his chief care must be to keep a proper balance between the manure which he spreads on his land, and the loss by growth of crops. This is not an affair of chance: agriculture, as well as many other human operations is governed by a scientific law.

Manure is the name given to every fertilizing substance—solid, liquid, or aeriform, which plants can assimilate or take up in the act of vegetation. Plants are endowed with powers or functions, by which, so to speak, they help themselves to grow: in common with animals they breathe, absorb gases, and secrete humours. We cannot change the composition of the atmosphere, we must, therefore, cast into the ground the substances with which we wish to improve or nourish a crop. When the green parts of plants are shone upon by the sun, they immediately seize upon or suck in azote or nitrogen, and the carbon contained in the carbonic acid of the air which we breathe. But it is in the earth where they grow that they must find water, and the substances known as *phosphates*, *sulphates*, *carbonates* and *silicates*. The best manure will, consequently, be that which best combines the food of plants: hence it is that good crops are sometimes raised by manuring with vegetable ashes. Sickliness or feebleness in plants may be compared to that disease in a human being: in which the quantity of iron which ought to form part of the blood, is very much diminished, but if iron be administered as medicine, the patient gets well. In the same way weak or languishing plants are made to thrive by supplying them with mineral salts.

When mineral manures first came into use, it was found that a great proportion of the fertilizing substance was lost, owing to its being washed down by rain to a depth where it was of no use to the plants. Many persons were in consequence dissatisfied with these manures, but the evil is now sought to be remedied by what are called *composts;* in these the mineral is combined with some other substance, and is thus prevented from wasting itself as heretofore. Liebig at one time asserted that plants required only mineral salts and air to make them flourish, and English agriculturists carried out his views on a large scale, the result however showed that something else was necessary, and this other thing as is now proved—is azote: in fact, recent researches lead us to believe that this azote, or nitrogen as it is sometimes called, is the principal aliment of plants. The leaves of certain trees contain azote; it is present in lupines, beans, peas, maize, &c.—so much so, that these seeds while green, are sometimes used as manure in the south of France and Italy. Azote abounds also in the flesh, blood and offal of animals, these make excellent manures when properly prepared. A favourite fertilizer among English farmers is that made of bones, and there is a double benefit in using it, for the bones supply the soil with both azote and earthy phosphates, and as the azote escapes but slowly from the hard particles of bone in which it is shut up, its virtue lasts a long time; in fact, land prepared with bone manure is said to feel the good effects for several years. Another sort of manure has also been made by dissolving bones and all parts of dead animals in sulphuric acid, by which the azote is rendered more efficacious. This acid has the property of preventing the decomposition of organic substances, and of dissolving carbonates and earthy phosphates. So great is the consumption of sulphuric acid for agricultural purposes, that several large factories and numerous workmen are now employed in its manufacture. Chemistry, it will thus be seen, has established rules for rational agriculture, it has corrected errors and prevented the losses occasioned by inexperience, and at the same time furnished easy means for preserving substances which alter and amend the soil. In addition to these advantages, chemistry has largely contributed to public health, by teaching us how to destroy or neutralize noxious materials or agencies. Foul emanations which injure human beings serve to enrich land. Now if we can render these foul vapours harmless, and store them up for use, there will be a double gain; population and agriculture are both benefited. The more population increases the more necessary will it be to remove injurious matters speedily; and unless we bestow a sufficiency of azotised manure upon the land, digging and ploughing will be but of little use.

Ammonia is perhaps more wasted than any other fertilising matter. It abounds in the urine of animals and other putrefying substances, and may be known by its peculiar pungent smell. Whenever this smell can be detected, it is a proof that ammonia is flying off in waste, and yet ammonia is most useful for gardening and farming purposes. This loss may be prevented by sprinkling sulphuric acid over the matters containing ammonia; by this means what is called the volatile alkali is fixed, the smell disappears, and a valuable solid fertilizer is produced. Powder of green copperas (sulphate of iron) can be used for the same purpose, and being in itself a neutral body, may be more conveniently handled. Mixed with animal charcoal in equal parts, the copperas powder fixes and neutralises all foul gases, and prevents the escape of ammonia. The same mixture scattered over the contents of a large privy or cesspool prevents the dispersion of the poisonous gases in which, as before stated, their chief fertilizing virtue consists. We would call attention to this fact: it might be turned to good account in factories, hospitals, schools, and other large establishments where great numbers of human beings are congregated. There would be a double economy at a trifling daily expense: the offensive *excretæ* would be rendered inodorous and harmless, and at the same time become of more value as manure. To which we may add that these matters when deprived of smell have also an important commercial value, as they can then be sent from place to place without annoyance.

For every pound of ammonia that flies off in waste there would be, had it been saved and applied to the land, *fifteen pounds* of wheat. Let this fact be borne in mind, and the loss that goes on daily all over the kingdom may be calculated. Wherever there are slaughter-houses, or factories in which animal substances are worked up—wherever animal matters are putrefying—wherever animal excretions, whether liquid or solid, are collected, there is waste of ammonia, unless means be taken to prevent its escape. The experiments hitherto made in this direction have been particularly successful and promising, and while abundant and cheap food is daily becoming more and more an object of request we would urge upon all the necessity as well as the advantage of bestowing attention to the subject. Skilful agriculturists in this country, and in Germany, France, and Belgium are making further experiments, and should any important results transpire, we shall as early as possible lay them before our readers.

VARIETIES.

New Use of Waste Steam.—A manufacturer, who has a steam-engine which discharges much waste steam, conceived the idea of using it to raise pine-apples. The steam was introduced under the root of the plants, and the heat and moisture united, acted so powerfully, that the pine-apples soon ripened; while the body of the plant being exposed all day to the open air, acquires a healthy and agreeable taste, which renders the fruit far superior to those which have been ripened in hot-houses.—*Recueil Soc. Polytech.*

Power of Gentleness.—Whoever understands his own interest, and is pleased with the beautiful rather than the deformed, will be careful to cherish the virtue of gentleness. It requires but a slight knowledge of human nature to convince us that much of our happiness in life must depend upon the cultivation of this virtue. Gentleness will assist its possessor in all his lawful undertakings: it will often make him successful when nothing else could; it is exceedingly lovely and attractive in its appearance; it wins the hearts of all; it is even stronger than argument, and often prevails when that would be powerless and ineffectual; it shows that man can put a bridle upon his passions; that he is above the ignoble vulgar, whose characteristic is to storm and rage like the troubled ocean, at every little adversity and disappointment that crosses their path; it shows that he can soar away in the bright atmosphere of good feeling, and live in a continual sunshine, when all around him are like maniacs, the sport of their own passions.

Cost of Literature.—A century ago the amount expended in books, periodicals, and newspapers, did not exceed £100,000. a-year, whereas the sum now so expended annually is calculated at £2,100,000.

Scenes of Life.—Many scenes of life are holy—the early morn, the twilight hour, the starry night, the rolling storm, the hymn of thousands from the sacred fane, the marriage rite, or funeral dirge; but none more holy than the chamber of the dying, lingering beside a departing spirit, seeing as if already the angel shone above the mortal, waiting but the eternal summons to wing his flight on high.—*From "Woman's Friendship," by Grace Aguilar.*

Eggs for Hatching.—A correspondent of the *Agricultural Gazette* says, that he has learned to discover which eggs will produce pullets, and has pursued the practice through this season with uniform success. It consists simply in this: to avoid setting the long-shaped eggs (which always produce cocks), choosing the rounder and plumper ones.

Juvenile Precocity.—A little boy about six years of age having been told by his mother that it was impolite for children, when visiting other people's houses, to ask for cakes or other things which they might see preparing, improved on the lesson as follows: —Calling at a house in the neighbourhood where a good woman was making a cake, and which he eyed very wishfully, at last he said, 'Mother says its not polite to ask for cake.' 'No,' was the reply, 'it does not look well for little boys to do so.' 'But,' said the urchin, 'she didn't say I must not eat a piece in case you gave it to me.' It is needless to add that he got a piece.

Longevity of Quakers.—It has been ascertained, from authentic statistics, that one-half of the human race die before reaching the age of twenty-one years; and the bills of mortality published in large cities, show that one-half die before attaining the age of five years. With these undisputed facts before us, it will seem strange that the average age of Quakers in Great Britain is fifty-one years two months and twenty-one days. This is, no doubt, attributable to the restraints and moderation which the principles of that sect impose upon its members—the restraint they are under in mingling in many of the dissipations and pernicious indulgences that hurry thousands to premature graves. What an excellent example for the instruction of the world.

The Corner.

Duty—The homeliest service that we do in an honest calling, though it be but to plough, or dig, if done in obedience, and conscious of God's commandment, is crowned with an ample reward; whereas the best works of their kind, if without respect of God's injunction and glory, are loaded with curses.—*Bishop Hall.*

Love.—The soul that is once truly touched with the magnetic force of Divine love, can never relish anything here so pleasingly as that entirely she can rest upon it. Though the pleasures, profits and honours of this life may sometimes shuffle him out of his usual course, yet he wavers up and down in trouble, runs to and fro like quicksilver, and is never quiet within till he returns to his wonted joy and inward happiness. There it is his centre points, and there his circle is bounded, which, though unseen and unperceived by others, are such to him as nothing can buy from him.—*Feltham.*

Humility.—An humble man is like a good tree; the more full of fruit the branches are, the lower they bend themselves.

SINCERITY.

Learned men, who are called etymologists and philologists, because they study the history and principles of words and language, tell us that *sincerity* is derived from, or had its beginning in two Latin words in frequent use among buyers and sellers who transacted business in the streets and markets of ancient Rome.

At that time sugar was not known, and of all sweets then used honey was the most esteemed, and it was of much consequence to the buyer to get pure and genuine honey, without any admixture. The country-people who thronged the markets of the great city knew this, and when at the close of summer they carried the produce of their beehives to Rome, they used to cry, *sine cera—sine cera*—which means, without wax—without wax; thereby wishing it to be understood that the honey they had to sell was quite clear and free from wax; or as some would say now-a-days—'a first-rate article.' It is from these two words, *sine cera*, that our word *sincerity* is formed.

It is also said that the same cry was common among petty brokers and crafty dealers in second-hand furniture, who contrived to do business in Rome, much in the same way as they do at present in back streets and out-of-the-way places in our large towns. A chief part of the occupation of such traders is to vamp up old articles and make them look as good as new; one means of doing this is by filling up all the cracks and worm-holes with coloured wax, so that the surface of the table, sideboard, or whatever else it may be, shall appear to be perfect. Now, some of the Roman furniture-doctors, making pretensions to fair dealing, used to warrant their goods to customers as *sine cera*, without wax: no filling up of chinks; but all smooth and sound.

These two little bits of history give us a good reason for the meaning we attach to the word sincerity. It expresses a quality which belongs to the mind and heart. Sincerity is the foundation of honesty. Honesty is uprightness of act, of *doing* what is just; but sincerity is uprightness of intention, of *thinking* what is just. There is a great and essential value in sincerity which commands respect even from those who do not care about it for its own sake. How often do we hear people praised for speaking openly and sincerely; and how many when they wish to be believed say:—'Now, candidly'—or 'To be candid with you'—or 'Upon my honour, I mean what I say;' all of which shews that there is a real genuine character about sincerity. Insincere people borrow it, or the semblance of it, when it suits their purpose to do so. They rub wax into the chinks.

Acting aright grows out of thinking aright; sometimes, however, a good intention is stifled in its birth; sincerity is strangled before it is strong enough to run alone as honesty. There must be a reason for this untimely cutting-off; and it would be well worth while trying to find out what it is. For instance: conscience says, do so and so; it is your duty to do it. Our first impulse is to obey. But the question arises—Shall I lose by it?—Will it hurt me in my business?—What will the neighbours say?—Mr. Smith gets along very well without doing it, and why should not I?—And so some excuse, some expedient puts out the spark that was burning in our heart, and which, had we fanned it a little, would by-and-by have flamed up as a shining lamp of truth.

This is cowardly to say the least of it, and morally wrong to say the most of it. Why are we placed here on the earth, but to act out our parts manfully according to the voice of conscience? Have we a true thought in our heart and shall we not declare it? Have we a desire to act aright, and shall we not seek to put our desire into practice? What is there in our fellow-men that should make us afraid? is there not something infinitely more terrible? We often clamour about our rights and privileges; but he who can be content to live in the light of the sun and shrink from speaking and acting his sincere thought in all due season, flings away the most glorious privilege a man can enjoy. Honest old Feltham says,—"Surely a liar is both a coward and a traitor. He fears the face of man, and therefore sneaks behind the littleness of a lie to hide himself. A traitor he is; for God having set him to defend his truth, he basely deserts the hold, and runs to his enemies' colours. He dares not keep the post he is assigned to by owning of His truth; but, like a coiner (pretending gold), he stamps the great King's image, Truth, upon copper and coarse alloy."

A habit of sincerity is of the highest value and importance to every one, and especially so to the working-man; he whose character is his capital. It is upon integrity that his worldly fortune is built; and there is no more pleasing sight than that of willing labour animated by a spirit of sincerity. It begets confidence, and wins esteem, and repays cares and trials with bright hopes and lasting pleasures.

A GIRL THAT WOULD BE MARRIED.

A NEW ENGLAND STORY.

Mr. Watts had by industry and economy accumulated a large property. He was a man of rather superior mind and acquirements, but unfortunately became addicted to habits of intemperance. Naturally fond of company, and possessing superior conversational powers, his company was much sought, and he became eventually a sot. His wife was a feeble woman, without much decision of character; but an only child was the reverse, illustrating one of those singular laws of nature, that the females oftenest take after the father in character and personal peculiarities, and the males after the mother.

Mary was well aware of the consequences that would inevitably follow her father's course, and had used every exertion of persuasion and reason in her power, to induce him to alter his habits, but without avail; his resolutions and promises could not withstand temptation, and he pursued his downward course, till the poor girl despaired of reform, and grievously realized what the end must result in.

John Dunn was a young man from the East, possessed of a good education, as all our New England boys are, and their indomitable industry and perseverance, and was working on the farm of a neighbour by the month.

Mary, on going on some errand to the next house, met him on the road with the usual salutation—'Good morning, Mr. Dunn.'

'Good morning, Miss Watts. How is your health?'

'Well, I thank you, but to tell the truth, sick at heart.'

'Pray, what is the trouble?' said John.—'What can affect you, a cheerful, lively girl like you, possessing every thing that can make you happy?'

'On the contrary,' replied Mary, 'everything conspires to make me miserable. I am almost weary of life. But it is a subject I can not explain to you; and yet I have sometimes thought I might.'

'Any thing that I can do for you Miss Watts, you may freely command.'

'That is promising more than you

would be willing to perform. But to break the ice at once, do you want a wife?'

'A wife! Well, I don't know. Do you want a husband?'

'Indeed I do, the worst way. I don't know but you may think me bold, and deficient in that maidenly modesty becoming a woman; but if you knew my situation, and the afflictions under which I suffer, I think it would be some excuse for my course.'

'Have you thought of the consequences?' said John—'my situation——I am poor—you are rich—I am a stranger—and—'

'Indeed I have, I am almost crazy. Let me explain—you and every one else know the unfortunate situation of my father. His habits are fixed beyond amendment, and his property is wasting like the dew before the sun.—A set of harpies are drinking his very heart's blood, and ruin and misery are staring us in the face. We are almost strangers, it is true; we have met in company a few times, but I have observed you closely. Your habits, your industry and the care and prudence with which you have managed your employer's business, has always interested me.'

'And yet, my dear young lady, what can you know of me to warrant you in taking such an important step?'

'It is enough for me that I am satisfied with your character and habits—your person and manners. I am a woman and have eyes. We are about the same age; so, if you know me and like me well enough to take me, there is my hand!'

'And, my dear Mary, there's mine, with all my heart in it. Now, when do you desire it to be settled?'

'Now, this minute: give me your arm, and we will go to squire Benton's and have the bargain finished at once. I don't want to enter our house of distress again until I have one on whom I can rely, to control and direct the affairs of my disconsolate home, and to support me in my determination to turn over a new leaf in our domestic affairs.'

'But not in this old hat, and in my shirt sleeves, Mary?'

'Yes—and I in my old sun bonnet and dirty apron. If you are content let it be done at once. I hope you will not think I am so hard pushed as that comes to; but I want a master. I am willing to be mistress, I will then take you home and introduce you as my own dear husband—signed, sealed, and delivered.'

'So be it—permit me to say, that I have always admired you from the first minute I saw you, for your beauty and energy, and industrious, amiable deportment.'

'Now John, if that is sincere, this is the happiest moment of my life, and I trust our union will be long and happy. I am the only one my father hears to; but alas! his resolutions are like ropes of sand. I can manage him on all other subjects; you must take charge of his business, and have sole control; there will be no difficulty—I am confident of the result.'

They were married, and a more happy match never was consummated. Every thing prospered; houses and barns were repaired, fences and gates were regulated, and the extensive fields smiled and flourished like an Eden. The unfortunate father in a few years sunk into a drunkard's grave. Mary and John raised a large family, and they still live, respected and wealthy—all from an energetic girl's resolution, forethought, and courage.

HOME EDUCATION.

PART IV.—INTELLECTUAL TRAINING.

THAT is the best education which most effectually fits its subjects for usefulness and happiness; and to produce this result, the mind, as well as the body and the moral affections, should be early disciplined and exercised. Before children are capable of speech, the powers of intellect expand, and call for wise and judicious training; and no school instruction in after years, will fully make up for the want of early attention to this particular. In some former papers of this series, we have ventured to recommend that children should not be urged on in *book knowledge* too early, but just in proportion to our confidence in the soundness of this advice, is our impression that much may be done, at a very early age, in conveying suitable and beneficial information to the mind.

It is intensely interesting to witness the first dawnings of intellect on an infant mind, and to watch its rapid progress:—to observe how the little stranger begins to compare, to draw mental inferences, to reason. Then, when the faculty of speech gives imperfect utterance to the efforts of memory and reflection, we perceive more plainly how unwearied and active is the intellect, and how rapidly it has accumulated materials for future use. Now is the time for the anxious parent to turn to account this principle of acquisitiveness or saving-up; and to encourage the exercise of thought.

There are numberless ways in which this intellectual training may be daily and almost hourly carried on. The simplest toy provided for the amusement of children, may serve to increase their store of useful ideas, and promote the improvement of their minds. A picture will present an opportunity of teaching something new and improving. There is not a room in the meanest cottage, which does not contain materials for enlarging and strengthening the intellect of a child; and parents who are alive to the importance of rightly educating their children will endeavour, as far as may be, to make every passing event subservient to this good end. It is possible, certainly, to carry this principle too far; and by overstraining the attention of a child, to defeat the object in view: but this is rarely done. More frequently is it the case that the mental faculties of the young rust for want of use, than wear out by too much exercise.

But let us be understood. The intellectual training of which we are speaking, is not—we repeat it—the task-work of books, to be learned by rote, and forgotten as soon almost as learned, without leaving behind a single impression beyond that of dislike to the means of instruction employed. No such thing! What we mean is this;—that a child of two, three, or four years old, while entirely unacquainted with every letter in the alphabet—may have gathered together a stock of useful ideas which he will never forget; and which, when the proper time arrives, will be applied to practical purposes, so that school instruction when it comes, will be not only truly beneficial, but absolutely pleasant and captivating.

We do not deny that this kind of intellectual training is sometimes trying to the patience of a parent, and sometimes even difficult to be pursued. Fathers and mothers whose time and attention are much occupied by the ordinary affairs of life, can scarcely be expected to give—nay, they cannot give,—constant attention to the mental condition and progress of their children; and, moreover, a child may ask a hundred questions, or seek information on a hundred points, which would task the united wisdom of many wise men satisfactorily to answer or explain. It would be well if these habits were carefully cultivated by every parent of every child: but it is to be feared that in very many instances, they are checked or suffered to lie dormant, until the very power, as well as the will, to exercise the mind is almost lost.

Then comes the era of tasks and tears. The thought that learning to read is the road to new stores of knowledge, excites no pleasurable or hopeful emotions; and the work has to be commenced under every disadvantage, at an advanced age of childhood, which ought to have been long since commenced;—not the work of learning to read, but of *learning to think*.

Now, this is not as it should be, nor as it might be. If the prospect of learning to read were held out to children in its most inviting aspect; if they were accustomed to hear said, 'I will tell you this, or explain that now, because you are too young yet to read for yourselves; but, by-and-by, you will find out all these things in books, and hundreds of pleasant things besides,'—the school would be divested of its terrors, and an incentive, far more powerful and efficacious than that of compulsion, would quicken the intellect of the child, and lighten the labours of the teacher.

But though the intellectual training of children should begin long before the years of school-learning, it would be a grievous mistake to suppose that the schoolmaster or schoolmistress, then takes the work out of the parents' hands, and that thenceforward there will be no need of home education: and we propose in this paper, and within the limits of a page or two, to show how the work of the teacher at school and the parent at home, may go hand in hand, and advance the future well-being and happiness of the child.

In the first place, let parents beware of representing the era of school instruction in an aspect either terrifying or forbidding to the child. This may easily be done through inadvertence, or want of thought; but whenever, or however, such an impression is made, the consequence, so long as the impression lasts, will be injurious: neither will it be very easily removed. We commend the following extract to the notice of our readers. It is alike truthful and suggestive.

"Why don't you get your task, instead of playing with your playthings from morning to night? You are grown too old now to do nothing but play. It is high time you should learn to read and write, for you cannot be a child all your life. So go, and fetch your *book* and learn your *task*."

"This angry speech is probably addressed to a child at the moment when he is intent upon some agreeable occupation, which is now to be branded with the name of *play*. Why that word should all at once change its meaning; why that should now be a crime which was formerly a virtue; why he who had so often been desired to go and play, should now be rebuked for his obedience, the child is unable to discover. He hears that he is no longer a child: this he is willing to believe, but the consequence is alarming; of the new duties incumbent upon his situation he has yet but a confused idea. Whether to learn to read be a dreadful thing or not, is a question he cannot immediately answer; but if his reasoning faculties be suspended, there is yet a power secretly working within him, by which he will involuntarily be governed. This power is the power of association. The word TASK, the first time he hears it, is an unmeaning word; but it ceases to be indifferent to him, the moment he hears it pronounced in a terrible voice. 'Learn your task,' and 'Fetch your book,' recur to his recollection with indistinct feelings of pain; and hence, without further consideration, he will be disposed to dislike both books and tasks. Thus the age of learning begins in sorrow."*

That this is a bad beginning no one will deny; and to avoid this it would be well for parents to represent school education as it really is, a privilege, and not a sad necessity; to congratulate their children upon the good time that is coming, when they may be permitted to share in the advantages of such instruction; and to speak of the teacher as a kind friend, willing and able to put them in possession of great and lasting benefits. And this due and proper respect, paid to the teacher of children, should never be suffered to fall into neglect or disuse by the parents. Let them first of all be satisfied that the teacher is competent to the instruction ot the young. By all means should the utmost pains be taken to ascertain this, or, if afterwards dissatisfied with the progress made by the child, his treatment at school, or the plans adopted,—why, remove the boy or the girl from the care of a teacher in whom you no longer have confidence; but, as you value knowledge, and as you desire that your child should continue to regard the means of instruction, we urge upon you, parent, never to speak slightingly or depreciatingly of the teacher of that child.

Then, in addition to this, most desirable is it that the parents at home should second, by every means in their power, the endeavours of the teacher in the school. There are many ways in which this may be done. For instance, children should never be detained from school, except in case of illness, or for some reason equally forcible and urgent. They should have it impressed on their minds that school instruction is too valuable, and the time allotted to it too precious, to be foregone for any other object. We fear that these views, correct as they must be admitted to be, are frequently overlooked by parents who yet flatter themselves they are doing all they can to give a good education to their children. How often have teachers to listen to excuses for the absence of scholars, such as these:—'Mother was busy, and wanted me to stop at home to help her.' 'Father sent me on an errand,' and so on. We know instances in which whole weeks of school instruction have been lost by boys who have been detained to give some doubtful kind of assistance in their father's harvest fields; and others, where the uniform practice is to send the boys to school six months only out of the twelve —the other six being occupied in the desultory occupations of a country life. The results of this system are what every wise parent and teacher would naturally expect, —that what is gained in the first half of the year, is lost in the last half of it; and the succeeding six months are vainly consumed in the process—discouraging alike to teacher and scholar—of rebuilding what has been repeatedly cast down. In other cases, children are permitted, as an *indulgence*, or a *reward*, to absent themselves from school. This is manifestly putting the teacher into a wrong position, and fostering the idea that the acquirement of knowledge is a disagreeable process, an irksome task, rather than a pleasurable exertion of the mental powers.

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* Edgeworth's Practical Education.

Again, the efforts of the teacher will be greatly assisted, his labour lightened, and the child encouraged, when the parents evidently take an interest in the progress made at school, encourage or assist the scholar in preparing his lessons for the morrow, and take pains to ascertain that the intellectual training keeps pace, at least, with the mere mechanical exercise of memory, with which, after all, the mind may have little to do. Let it be remembered that language itself, and the art of reading and writing words, are but the means and instruments of knowledge, and not knowledge itself; and that even the acquirement of knowledge is but of little value, except the learner be taught to apply what he knows to some good purpose. This is the end and essence of education, and parents, alive to its importance, will not rest satisfied unless, with their children this end be accomplished. It is the business and the duty of the teacher, doubtless, to pave the way, so to speak, for this application of school instruction; but, for success, much, we are persuaded, depends upon the system of Home Education with which he may have to cooperate, or, as the case may be, and too often is,—with which he may have to contend.

It is really almost vain for the teacher to strive against the mischievous influences of some kinds of home training and habits,—counteracting, as they do, his best efforts, and setting at naught the needful mental discipline required by him from the learner.

'How is it, my boy,' said a patient instructor one day, to a dunce of a pupil,—'how is it that you never can repeat your morning lesson? You have many hours after you reach home in which to learn it; and it is but little that I require of you.'

'Father says,' blubbered the boy, 'that he does not want me to learn anything out of school.'

Yes, this was true to the letter. The father *did not* want the boy to learn out of school. School, he said, was the place for learning; he sent his boy there to be taught, and he did not want to see him with a book in his hand at home. And thus the easy lesson, which might have been committed to memory, even by a dull learner, in a quarter of an hour, and which was to form the text of intellectual instruction for the next day, was repudiated by the father who, by-and-by, in all probability, will complain that his boy never got any good at school.

Now, we do not think there are many parents who so undisguisedly and directly thwart the efforts and plans of their children's teachers; but we do fear that home influence of a less decided but equally injurious kind is often exercised. In fact, the schoolmaster and schoolmistress may, without profanation, adopt the words of "the great Teacher sent from God," and say, "He that is not for us is against us; and he that gathereth not with us, scattereth abroad."

Our limited space is nearly filled. In a future paper we intend to refer to some methods by which the intellectual training of children may be further advanced at home. Meanwhile, we can but congratulate ourselves that among the hundreds of thousands of our readers are multitudes of parents, anxious that their children should reach, not merely to a decent and respectable, but to a high standard of intellectual attainment. To such, we would say,—Your object is a noble one, and worthy of large sacrifices, even should sacrifices be needful. Happily they are not. The means of mental improvement and discipline are increasingly available, and in every rank of life knowledge is advancing. Let your concern be to embrace the favourable circumstances by which you are surrounded, and—while yourselves, daily advancing, as you may, in practical wisdom, — to share with your children the benefits you thus receive,—encouraging them to seek, in intellectual pursuits and recreations, those high gratifications which the pleasures of sensuality can never impart. Teach your child that the best enjoyments of our nature may be common to him, as well as to the most favoured by fortune, and let him be taught how to appreciate them. Diminish the attraction of his sensual enjoyments, by extending the range of his mental pleasures. Let him be taught that knowledge which will in after life render him happier in his domestic relations, and wiser in his public ones. Thus will you, reader, serve your day and generation, and, far as the range of your home influence has reached, you will leave the world better than you found it.

AN ALLIGATOR STORY.

There was an alligator which had taken up his abode near a ford, and given a dusky acquaintance of mine a great deal of vexation, and had occasioned him much loss by pulling into the water calves, and even cattle, that came to drink. He told me that one day, being on horseback, he caught the alligator in shallow water, a good way from his accustomed pool; and having his lasso with him, but attached to the pommel of his saddle, he galloped after him as he was making for his haunt, and lassoed him round the neck, and tried to drag him to a tree on the bank; but his horse was completely overpowered, and brought down on his knees. He had no remedy left him but to follow the beast and try to get rid of his lasso, but it was too fast to the saddle; and he was dragged right through the pool and out at the other side. He tried to cut the lasso with his machete, but it was so blunt he could not cut through the hide-thongs; so down the stream they all went together, through pools and shallows, till he remembered he had a knife in the pocket of his sheepskin, and, after some trouble in getting at it, managed to sever his tow-rope. 'Never, caballero,' said he 'did a man take such a journey, sometimes in the shallows, but the bottom all large stones and rocks; then splash into deep water, then deep mud, then stones over again; and, worse than all, I knew if I had gone a very little further, there was a fall of water as high as this rancho, and I to have gone down it without having even confessed myself!' —*Byam's Wild Life in Central America.*

RECIPES,

AND ANSWERS TO INQUIRERS.

Sherbet and Ginger-Beer.—Sherbet, as generally prepared, is in fact weak spirits and water—thus a glass of brandy to a quart of water acidulated and sweetened—but our correspondent asks for it as a temperance beverage, and we see no reason whatever why an agreeable and wholesome drink may not be prepared without the expensive and objectionable addition, and deserve the name of Temperance Sherbet. First, clarify the sugar—that is, bring it to a clear syrup in the following ways: to two pounds of loaf sugar, allow a pint of spring water, and the white and shell of one egg well beaten. Break up the sugar in large lumps and set it over the fire in a preserving-pan or brass skillet, with three quarters of the water and the egg. Stir till the sugar is dissolved, and the syrup begins to get warm, but no longer. When it boils fast, pour in the remaining cold water, which will throw up the scum. When it again boils up, remove from the fire, and stand it aside to settle; then remove all scum, which place on a hair sieve or muslin strainer; but if the latter, do not squeeze it. What freely runs through is to be returned to the rest, which boil up once more, and again settle and skim. This quantity of sugar will be sufficient to sweeten from three to four gallons of sherbet, according as it is liked more or less sweet. To this, when cold, may be added for flavouring, one drachm or drachm and a-half of almond flavouring. Bottle, cork close, and keep in a cool dry place. When the sherbet is to be made, to every quart of water allow six or eight moderate sized sticks of rhubarb. If of the giant sort, three or four will be sufficient. Cut them up with a silver knife, boil them ten minutes, strain the boiling liquor on to the thin-shaved rind of a lemon, or if more convenient, use pure essence of lemon; eight or ten drops will be sufficient. It may be added to the clarified sugar, of which four table-spoonsful are to be stirred to the strained liquor. Let it stand five or six hours before using. N.B. The rhubarb may be sweetened and used for a tart.

Ginger Beer, or Pop. — The principal difference between these is, that ginger beer is put in a cask a few days before bottling, pop is bottled immediately. It is also usual to boil the ingredients for ginger beer, which is not done for pop. Both are usually put in stone bottles, or in stout glass bottles of an egg shape, properly soda water bottles. The corks are tied or wired down. If done properly, the corks and strings will serve many times in succession. As soon as the string is untied, the cork flies out uninjured. The bottles as soon as empty, should be soaked a few hours in cold water, shaken about, and turned down to drain. The stone bottles to be also scalded immediately before using. The corks also to be scalded.

To make Ginger Pop.—Coarse lump sugar or fine moist, one pound, cream of tartar, two ounces, bruised ginger, one ounce. Pour over these one gallon of boiling water. Stir it well, and cover it up while cooling, that the flavour of the ginger may not evaporate. It is a good plan to do thus far the last thing at night; then it is just fit to set working in the morning, as it is essential that the proper time be observed between working and bottling. The liquor at the time of working should be as cool as possible without being quite cold. To a tea-cupful of the liquor, stir two table-spoonfuls of solid yeast. Let this stand a quarter-of-an-hour in a moderately warm place—in the influence of a fire, but not close to it—then pour it to the rest, stir thoroughly and cover up for *eight hours.* If bottled earlier, the bottles are apt to fly; if later, the beer becomes vapid. Skim, strain, bottle, cork and tie down. The cork should not touch the liquor. Stand in a cellar or closet, free from light and from draughts of air. It will be fit for use in twenty-four hours. The thin rind and juice of a lemon or orange or two may be added to the ingredients, or twenty-five drops of pure essence of lemon.

Ginger Beer (properly so called).—The proportions of this may vary according to taste, and intention of keeping for a longer or a shorter time. Loaf sugar is preferable to moist. The quantity may be from one pound to one pound and a-half for each gallon required. Best ginger (sliced or bruised) for the same quantity, from half-an-ounce to one ounce; a lemon, or one-and-a-half, or Seville oranges if preferred; or two drachms of citric acid, and twenty-five or thirty drops of essence of lemon; the white and shell of an egg. The above are the proportions for one gallon. To four gallons, half an ounce of hops will answer every purpose for 'keeping,' as well as a quarter of a pint of brandy.

Method of Making.—Boil the water, sugar, whites and shells of eggs, (well beaten) and skim carefully; then add the ginger, hops, and thinly-shaved rinds of lemons or oranges, if such be used, and let the whole boil half-an-hour—meanwhile clean the fruit of all the white pith, and put the fruit whole into the cask. When the liquor has boiled its time, put it into the cask boiling hot, without straining, and slightly bung it. If citric acid be used instead of fresh fruit, the essence of lemon may be dropped on a lump of sugar, and that and the acid dissolved in a small quantity of the liquor when boiled, and then added to the rest. It must not be boiled in. Two days after brewing, the fermentation may be assisted by stirring in a little fresh yeast, (two table-spoonfuls to a gallon)—then bung the cask closely. After standing a fortnight, draw off and bottle. In another fortnight it will be ready for use. This will keep longer than ginger pop, but the latter is cheaper; and for ordinary purposes answers just as well. [For ginger beer powders, see *Fam.Econ.*, vol i. p. 112.]

Primrose Vinegar.—Six pounds good raw sugar, eighteen quarts of water, boil together for fifteen or twenty minutes. When about the warmth of milk from the cow, add one peck of full grown, clean-picked primroses, stalks and all. Stir in a large table-spoonful of fresh solid yeast, and let it ferment for three or four days, taking care to stir the whole once or twice daily. Put the whole into a clean sweet cask, or one that has been previously used for the same purpose—cover the bung-hole with strong paper pasted down. This is to exclude dust, but holes are to be pricked in the paper to admit air. Set the cask in a warm place; if possible, exposed to the sun under a skylight. In three months the vinegar will be ready for use. It keeps best drawn from the cask as wanted. The cask used from year to year, will ensure the earlier ripeness, and produce vinegar of the best quality. Those who require much vinegar for pickling and other purposes, may find it answer to have two vinegar casks—one in draught, the other with the new-made vinegar of the current year, so filling them alternately.

Treacle Vinegar.—Treacle two pounds, boiling water one gallon, stir it well, cool quickly. When all but cold, stir in two large table-spoonfuls of solid yeast, and let it work a week or ten days; then skim, and put it in a dry clean cask, or stone bottle, keeping it in a warm place to encourage fermentation. When it has done working, add one pint of best vinegar, and two ounces of raisins. Do not bung down, but lay a tile over the opening to keep out dust and insects. It should be kept in a warm place; in summer, on or under slates, or under a skylight in a sunny aspect; in winter, near the fire. After standing three months, bung it close.

Vinegar from British Wine is made as follows:—Some families thus keep up a constant supply of strong vinegar for pickling and for every other domestic purpose. It should be begun in a new cask, or at any rate one that has been used only for pale wine, and is perfectly sweet and dry. First put into the cask a quart of best vinegar boiling hot, (a stone or Nottingham ware jar, closely covered, is the best for heating vinegar). Bung the cask closely, and roll and shake it about in every direction, that the hot vinegar may reach every part of the wood. After six or eight hours empty this vinegar, closely bung the cask, and make a hole in the bung-hole stave, close to where the head is inserted. This hole should be just large enough to admit a small funnel. Set the cask where it may conveniently remain, near to a good fire. The chimney-corner of a farm-house kitchen is a very suitable place. Whatever be the size of the cask, one-tenth part of the contents is to be of the strongest and best vinegar. Put this in by the funnel, which remove, and insert a vent-peg; so let it remain one week. Then in the same manner add of stale or sour wine half as much as the original quantity of vinegar. Repeat this addition once a week till the cask is full. Then tighten the vent-peg, and let it remain untouched a full fortnight, when the whole contents of the cask will be as good and strong vinegar as that first put in. Two-thirds of the whole may now be drawn off and bottled, and then the weekly filling up go on again as before. Wine intended for making vinegar should remain on the lees until the time of adding to the vinegar cask; but the wine lees of several casks may be put together in one cask or stone bottle.

Vinegar from ripe Gooseberries.—The thin-skinned yellow-hairy are the best, but any sort will do. Wash the ripe fruit, and to every quart (when washed) add three quarts of water. Let them steep together two days, frequently stirring. Then strain, and to every quart of liquor add one pound coarse brown sugar. Stir them well together, and put in the cask—yeast will not be required. Spontaneous fermentation will soon take place; it will be expedited by warmth. It is not necessary to add vinegar, but if a little is added as above when the fermentation ceases, it will the sooner be fit for use. Once more—excellent vinegar may be made from the refuse of bee-hives. All the empty combs broken up and steeped in twice their bulk of water. Stir often, cover up, and keep in a warm place. Thus it is to remain in a tub or pan from twelve to twenty days, being frequently stirred. Then strain the liquor, stopping short when it begins to look yellow. Clean and dry the tub or pan, return to it the strained liquor, and again set it in a warm place, covered up with sacks or flannels. In five or six weeks put it in the cask, but leave the bung open. It will soon be fit for use; then tighten the bung.

To Bottle Fruit without Sugar.—Gather the fruit when dry, and bottle shortly after. Soften some good corks thoroughly in hot water, and fit them to the bottles, tying them down in the same manner as for ginger beer. Pack the bottles on their sides in a furnace or boiler, with hay or cloths between to prevent them from breaking. Cover them with cold water, and let them be gradually heated, remaining until the fruit appears slightly cooked. Then remove the fire, and let the bottles stay in the water until cold. Keep them in a cool, dry place. By this means green and ripe gooseberries, rhubarb, black and red currants, (the latter improved by the addition of a few raspberries,) damsons, and plums, have been tried with success, the fruit retaining its flavour as though recently gathered. Quart wine bottles answer best for small fruits, as they are most easily fitted with corks. Green peas are successfully preserved in the same manner.

To take away Grubs from the face.—The pimples with black tips called grubs or worms on the face, and which have been popularly imagined to be really such, cannot be got rid of by means of outward applications. The thickened matter must be squeezed out of each pimple. But to prevent the tendency to produce those, or any other of the unsightly pimples which are disagreeable to all cleanly persons, and especially annoying to those who are much concerned about personal appearance, a strict attention is necessary to the following simple rules, which, as they conduce to the promotion of health generally, conduce also to that perfect clearness of skin which indicates the regular discharge of all the various functions of the human frame :—1. Strict moderation in food ; 2. The free use of dry salt as a condiment ; 3. Avoidance of all heavy and stimulating drinks ; 4. Constant activity ; 5. Fresh air and plenty of it ; 6. Frequent and thorough ablutions, a shower-bath if possible ; 7. Early hours of rising and rest ; 8. Total abstinence from all uneasy pressure on any part of the person, all *tight lacing*, *tight shoes*, *tight garters*, *tight sleeves* ; 9. Attention to the state of the bowels—though it is scarcely necessary to mention this ; for if all the former rules are properly observed, an instance of irregularity in the action of the bowels will rarely be met with. We will just add, to the person annoyed by those greasy dirty-looking grubs, Do not suffer yourself to be deceived by any sort of quack remedy. In your case not one of them will or can effect a cure, and the great probability is, that they may produce some evil far more serious than that which they will surely fail to cure.

Cement and Ground Glass Imitation.—In half-a-pint spirits of wine-steep one ounce of isinglass twenty-four hours, then dissolve it over a slow fire, keeping the vessel covered that the spirit may not evaporate, (for this purpose a double saucepan should be used, the outer one containing water, after the manner of a glue-pot ; or the solution may be made in a jar with a lid, tied over also with bladder, and placed in a saucepan of water—the water should surround the jar to the height of two inches or more, but not so high as to float it). When the isinglass is completely dissolved, add the juice of garlic, obtained by pounding in a mortar six cloves of theroot,and straining through linen. Mix well,and cork close for a short time. The mixture will then cement either glass or crystal.

Cement to resist Fire and Water.—Half-a-pint each of vinegar and milk, simmer them together till the curd separates. Strain, and with the whey mix the whites of five eggs well beaten up. The mixture of these two substances being complete, add sifted quick-lime, and make the whole into the consistence of putty. Let it be carefully applied—that is, to lay it on every part of the broken edges, and to make the edges fit exactly ; as soon as it is perfectly dry it will be found to resist both heat and moisture. Whatever the article was originally calculated to bear, it is again fitted to bear as much as if it had never been broken.

ON CRACKING A ROTTEN NUT.

Thou little false deceitful thing,
Who took the trouble thee to bring
From Barcelona's land ?
For with thy smooth and glossy shell,
Not e'en a judge of nuts could tell
Thy rottenness within.

And so some men their looks belie,
And spend their lives in vain, to try
To seem what they are not ;
But days of trial come, and then
You see they want the souls of men,
And are but empty shells.

A CHAPTER ABOUT DIET.

In order fully to complete the subject of Digestion which appeared in our last number, we now proceed to state a few principles concerning Diet. The eating of food is so important a part of our daily necessities, and it may be said, of our daily pleasure, that it will be well worth while to devote a little attention to the questions—How to eat? and, what to eat?

Eating, in the first place, should be regulated by the age, constitution, and other circumstances of the eaters. The tender stomachs of infants cannot digest the same kind or amount of food as would be suitable for a boy; and a youth in good health will eat more than a man in the prime of life, or than is required by old people. So also, a person who takes much active exercise in the open air, or whose work is such as to give vigorous employment to the muscles, will be able to eat double the quantity that would be good for one who leads an indolent life, or who sits all day in a close room at some quiet occupation. The state of the weather, too, has something to do with the amount of food taken into the stomach: the colder the climate, the more do people eat. The Esquimaux, who live towards the North Pole, when they can get it, will devour twelve or more pounds of raw whale's blubber in a day, and the boatmen who accompany travellers in the same regions make no trouble of eating ten pounds of beef within twelve hours. Those who live in hot climates, on the contrary, eat in comparison but little animal food; many take nothing but fruit, rice, or other vegetable substances. We have, therefore, to bear in mind that we are not in all cases to eat a certain quantity of food, merely because we have accustomed ourselves to eat such a quantity. Very great good often follows from eating a lesser quantity, and it would be well if, in this respect, every one would learn to practise a little self-denial. On this point Dr. Combe observes—"We shall not err very far, if with due regard to the season of the year, we proportion our meals to the amount of the preceding exercise. Where this has been active and in the open air, and waste has consequently been considerable, a liberal allowance of food will be more easily digested than perhaps half the quantity would be after a week's inaction. Hence, it is a great error to devour the same quantity of food daily, in summer and in winter, and whatever our mode of life and bodily exertion may be; because the strong food which the strong action of strong bodies requires will soon destroy weak ones, if the latter attempt to follow the example of the former; instead of feeling invigorated, their stomachs will be as oppressed as a porter is with a load that is too heavy for him. And yet nothing is more common than to see persons who have passed from a life of varied activity in the open air to one of a purely sedentary nature within doors, continue to eat as much food as if they were still engaged in constant bodily exertion. Many females of the higher and middle classes, who scarcely ever stir out of doors except to church, nevertheless make as hearty meals twice or thrice a-day, as if they were undergoing pretty severe exertion; but they sooner or later reap their reward, and after groaning for a time under the burden which they have placed upon their own shoulders, they either obtain relief by the forced adoption of a temperate regimen, or fall into the hands of the undertaker."

Again: "in towns, we often observe the bad effects of over-feeding in young female servants recently arrived from the country. From being accustomed to constant exercise and a low temperature in the open air, and to the comparatively innutritious diet on which the labouring classes subsist, they pass all at once, with appetite, digestion, and health in their fullest vigour, to the confinement of a warm house, the impure atmosphere of a crowded city, and a rich and stimulating diet. Appetite, still keen, is freely indulged; but waste being diminished while nutrition is increased, fulness is speedily induced, followed in its turn by inflammatory disease or fever, which sometimes cuts short life; where, with better management, health might have been preserved for years." The same remarks would apply to tailors' and shoemakers' apprentices, to milliners and dressmakers, and to sit-still employments, generally. The laws of eating cannot be broken with impunity any more than the laws of the land; there are a few simple ones which all persons may study and remember with advantage :—

Good air Abundant exercise Plenty of active work Good health	require—Plenty of food.
Bad air Deficient exercise Sit-still work Ill health	require—Little food.

The best way to avoid over-eating is to leave off the moment we feel satisfied ; there is a point in our meals at which the feeling of having had enough comes on, and if we stop then we feel refreshed and invigorated ; but if, as is too often the case, we are tempted to eat more, then we undergo a sensation of dulness and heaviness, and are unwilling to bestir ourselves. We are afflicted with head-ache, pain in the stomach, and in nine cases out of ten costiveness, or confined state of the bowels, comes on. The bowels are made to act regularly, to pass their contents at proper times, and it is our fault if they do not do so. When more than enough is eaten the surplus is never properly digested, and when ill-digested food gets into the bowels disorder is sure to follow. Young children require to be treated with great care in their diet ; the health and happiness of all their future life may depend upon it.

A regular habit of eating is a most beneficial means of preventing over-feeding in children. Infants require light and mild food, their rapid growth must be supported by proper nutriment, and when their muscular system comes into full activity, then is the time to give them animal food. Until the teeth appear there can be no better food for the child than the mother's milk ; but as soon as the teeth show themselves it is a sign that the stomach is able to digest other matters, and thin gruel, arrow-root, and farinaceous substances may be given. After weaning, and when the dog-teeth have come through, the child may be fed with thin broth, soft-boiled eggs and the like, in addition to bread and baked flour, but always in moderate quantities. As a rule solid meat should not be given until all the teeth are cut ; neglect of these precautions often causes many years of pain and suffering to a child, ending at times with that distressing malady, water on the brain.

Another rule to be attended to with children and grown people also, is, that they should eat only when they are hungry. It is a very mistaken and mischievous practice to supply children with little bits of something to eat every hour in the day for the sake of keeping them quiet. There are many rational and proper ways of keeping a family peaceable without this continual excitement of the digestive organs. The stomach requires rest as well as any other part of the body, when it has done its work ; and if it does not get this rest there will be pain and disturbance somewhere. For children two years old, four hours between meals is not too long a time. " Give children something to do," observes Dr. Combe, " and to think about, and they will seek meat only when hungry. But leave them idle and listless, and eating will become their chief subject of contemplation."

Much of what has been said concerning the diet of children would apply to many persons advanced in life : those who have weak stomachs, or who are troubled with indigestion, may often find relief by being careful in the choice of their food. Those who are of a dull sluggish habit may eat more stimulating or animal food than those who are of a nervous excitable temperament. Food is to be taken for nourishment not for excitement. Stimulation not unfrequently leads to inflammatory diseases ; and therefore very excitable persons, whether young or old, should eat more of farinaceous substances, rice, potatos, sago, &c. than of meat.

The time of meals must depend very much on general habits of life and social position ; one rule, however, may be safely followed by all (except in cases of ill-health), and that is to eat but *once* in five hours. Those who breakfast at eight may dine at one ; or the first meal may be taken at seven and the second at twelve. It is not desirable to wait long for breakfast, or to work or undergo exercise for several hours on an empty stomach ; it brings on, as many persons know, a painful feeling of fatigue and weariness. Those who are obliged to go to labour early should make it a rule to eat a crust of bread, or something of the sort, before leaving home ; this will give the stomach some employment, and prevent the uneasy sensations until the usual breakfast hour. As regards dinner, it should be eaten slowly, not hastily, neither should any one hurry off to work immediately after eating it, for digestion cannot go on well unless the body remains quiet. The reason of this is, that when food is taken into the stomach, the blood is drawn towards it to assist the process of digestion by increasing the warmth, and promoting the secretion of gastric juice. If, therefore, we go to work or exercise ourselves directly after a meal, the blood is drawn away from the stomach, where its presence is so necessary, and sent to the parts which we put in motion. Consequently, as the stomach loses its warmth, the food within cannot be digested in the natural time, and by remaining there longer it causes pain and discomfort, and at times leads on to a long-continued attack of dyspepsia, or indigestion.

According to the dinner-hour tea may be taken at five or six ; but those accustomed to eat suppers should eat very little at tea : this meal is in fact a sort of afternoon lunch. In most cases it is best to avoid suppers altogether, and to eat more abundantly at tea-time. Supposing a working-day to consist of twelve or thirteen hours, three good meals in that period are quite sufficient ; and if any inconvenience is felt from waiting, it is always easy to pacify the stomach with a mouthful of crust until the meal-time arrives. But, as before observed, there must be no *habit* of eating between meals.

Thus far we have been answering the question, How to eat ? We have now to consider the other, What to eat ? This inquiry may be answered in very simple terms. A mixed diet of bread, meat, and vegetables is better than any one of the three alone ; meat satisfies the appetite more completely, and for a longer time, than either of the other two ; and if a choice must be made between bread and vegetables, the bread should be chosen. Most kinds of game are easy of digestion. Roast beef and mutton are the most digestible of all butcher meats. It is a fact worth remembering, that roasting and broiling are the modes of cooking meat which best suit the stomach ; this is proved by a comparison of the time required for the digestion of different sorts of food : Thus, beef and mutton roasted or broiled, rather underdone, are digested in three hours—

	Hours.
Pork, broiled	3¼
Salt pork, boiled	4½
Pork, roasted	5¼
Salt beef, cold, bld.	4¼
Soft eggs	1 to 3
Hard-boiled or fried eggs	3½
Venison, broiled..	1¾
Veal, broiled	4
" fried	4½
Heart, fried	4
Rice	1
Milk, boiled	2
Bread	3½

Fruit and vegetables require from two to four hours, according to quality and mode of cooking. Potatos roasted and baked, and raw cabbage, are digested in two hours and a-half ; but boiled potatos need another hour, and boiled cabbage with vinegar four hours and a-half. Here we see why some things disagree with the stomach when eaten ; those which stay the longest are the most troublesome. Vegetables in general afford the least nutriment, and they are mostly passed on from the stomach without being fully digested. This has been proved in several instances which have occurred, of patients with an opening leading out of their bowels just below the stomach ; when they had eaten meat it could not be distinguished as meat by the time it reached the opening, but spinach, carrots, and other vegetables were but little altered. M. Londe, the medical attendant says, " In my patients, salads, prunes, apples, and spinach, always appeared at the wound at the end of an hour, while the animal food never reached it in less than three hours. It seems as if the digestive canal, anxious to get rid of the vegetables, from which it could extract nothing, and constantly contracting to drive them away, took the opportunity which the accidental hole afforded of expelling them altogether; while it retained, by a sort of predilection or elective attraction, the animal matter which could repay the expense of its labour."

Soup is not wholesome or digestible unless eaten with a good portion of solid food ; where children are fed largely on soup, their health suffers in some way ; in several workhouses and poor-law unions, the use of peas-soup has been discontinued, as it was found to render children liable to disease of the mesentery. Fish in general is easy of digestion, and is good for those to whom meat would be too stimulating. Bacon also may be eaten as rashers, toasted in front of the fire, or broiled ; but, as a rule, boiled salt meats are best avoided. Veal, pork, hot butter, and pastry, are more or less indigestible, and consequently to be eaten with caution. The mischief of pie-crust consists in the fat with which it is prepared; some persons make it with flour and water only, as a cover to the fruit; it is then harmless: the chief good of a pie, however, is in the refreshing qualities of the cooked fruit.

The author already quoted states, that for a weak stomach plain well-cooked animal food, not too recently killed, and eaten in moderate quantity with bread, rice, or roasted potatos, forms one of the most easily digested meals which can be devised. It is equally true for those whose stomachs are not weak; and many who now suffer inconvenience after eating, would find benefit from following this excellent hint. Roasting is by far the best mode of cooking potatos as well as meat, and it would be to the advantage of the stomachs of the nation if the practice were to become general.

Another point to be attended to is, to avoid over-drinking at meals: some people swallow large draughts of water or beer, and so chill the stomach and hinder the work of digestion. In general, half-a-pint, or less, will be sufficient at dinner, if drunk in very small quantities at a time. Beer, wine, and spirits are totally unnecessary for persons in health, and in cases where they are really needed should be taken in great moderation.

We have now answered the two inquiries with which we set out, and in conclusion, offer a few general rules for daily practice:—Let all you eat be properly cooked. If any thing you eat disagrees with you leave off eating it. Do not eat food more rich or stimulating than your stomach will bear. Do not load your stomach with a quantity of innutritious vegetables, you will thrive better on a small quantity of meat. Do not eat too much, or drink too much: leave off with the first feeling of having had enough. Enjoy your food and be thankful for it, but do not make eating the chief object of your thoughts.

FAMILY SECRETS.

THE FIRE; OR, MUCH MADE OUT OF LITTLE.

NAY, that is impossible, a little may be made of much. We have heard even of cutting a coat to a button, but he must be a clever tailor indeed, who can cut a coat out of the covering of a button!

And yet such manufacturers may be found on a tailor's board, in a barber's shop, and round tea-tables and washing-tubs in every town in the kingdom. Here is a specimen—

'Oh, dear! Mrs. Thomson, have you heard what a dreadful fire there was last night at the bottom of Mill Street?'

'No, not a word of it.'

'Well, that is strange! it is quite the town talk. It broke out about seven o'clock in the evening, but I did not hear of it till past nine, and then it was just out. I had a good mind to come up and tell you about it, but my husband said perhaps you would be going to bed.'

'Pray whose house was it?'

'Mr. Martin's, next door to the great timber yard.'

'Dear me! Mr. Martin's! Was the house burnt down? and were there any lives lost? I hope not.'

'No, the house was not altogether burnt down; but it would have been, if the neighbours had not broken in and put out the fire; and as to lives, there were none to lose, and that is how it happened. You know they are mighty religious people, and they were gone to chapel, maid-servant and all, and the servant had made up a great rousing fire in the kitchen to burn till they came back—perhaps to cook a supper. Well, for my part, I think it is very wrong to leave a place in such a manner. Nobody knows how much timber was burnt in the next yard before they came back, and for anything they knew the whole street might have been on fire.'

'Begging your pardon, Mrs. Morris,' interposed another neighbour, 'you are quite mistaken. The maid-servant was not gone to chapel; she was upstairs putting on her things to go, and when she came down the kitchen was all of a blaze, and she was quite suffocated. So when the neighbours knocked they could not make any one hear; so they broke in, and found the poor girl suffocated at the kitchen door. I did hear she was quite dead, but that I am not sure of. Did you hear, Mrs. Morris?'

'No, Mrs. Bird, and I think you are quite out in your story; I am pretty well sure nobody was in the house, for my husband knocked at the door twice, and nobody answered, so he came home. I was vexed enough with him for not staying to see the upshot of it, then I should have known all for a certainty. I worried him to go out again, and so he did at last; but he did not go far before he met some one who told him the fire was quite out. Let it be how it will, I should think it would cure them of going to chapel and leaving the house in that neglected manner.'

'I am rather surprised at it,' said Mrs. Thomson. 'I do not think they are in the habit of leaving the house on a week-day. Besides, now I think of it, Thursday is not their chapel night. I know too that Mrs. Martin is uncommonly careful of fire, and I do not think she would suffer the servant to make up one that was dangerous.'

'Well, perhaps they might all be gone visiting, I can't say; and perhaps the girl took the opportunity to go too when her mistress was out of the way.'

'We should be careful not to surmise things without knowing. Sally Brown has lived with Mrs. Martin several years, she has an excellent place, and is highly esteemed as a trusty servant. It would be hard if she should have anything unjustly charged upon her. Perhaps after all she had nothing to do with the fire.'

'Perhaps not; there really is no speaking after anybody.'

When these two parish alarums, Mrs. Morris and Mrs. Bird, had run down their peal, they took leave; and Mrs. Thomson, who was really concerned at the report, hastened to call on Mrs. Martin, and offer any neighbourly assistance in a time of distress. To her great surprise she found the front of the house uninjured, and the carpenter's men at work in the yard, just as if nothing had happened. To her still greater surprise, the door was opened by Sally Brown aforesaid, who showed her into a parlour, the furniture of which was as clean and orderly as ever. Moreover, in passing the kitchen door, she espied the fire blazing merrily, and a joint of meat roasting before it. 'Well,' thought she, 'how amazingly soon they have got things in place again!' This soliloquy was interrupted by the entrance of Mrs. Martin. With real solicitude and sympathy, Mrs. Thomson inquired how she found herself after her fright?

'What fright?' said Mrs. Martin.

'Dear ma'am, I beg your pardon. Is it possible that people have been so wicked as to make up a story about your house being burnt down while you were at chapel last night?'

'Oh! I know now what you mean, but I had really forgotten it. I was not at chapel, but at home; in fact, I was the guilty person. I had been sorting some old letters, several of which I threw behind the fire, and the chimney being rather foul the soot fired.'

'And were you alone in the house? How frightened you must have been!'

'No, I was not alone in the house, Sally was in the kitchen, I believe.'

'Then did not the fire break out in the kitchen?'

'No, in the one pair of stairs room, where I usually sit when alone; but, in fact, it did not break out at all, it was entirely confined to the chimney.'

'Then, ma'am, did the flakes of fire fly into the timber yard?'

'No, I am thankful to say they did not; that was the only thing about which I was alarmed. The night was windy, and the yard full of deal and shavings; on that account we considered it right for a man to sit up and watch, but there was no further alarm.'

'Excuse my asking so many questions, but I really have been quite distressed at the report.'

'Report! why has any one thought it worth while to report it? I am astonished that you should have heard a word about it.'

'Dear ma'am, I can assure you I came down expecting to find you in great distress, and poor Sally nearly or quite suffocated. Will you be kind enough to tell me how the fire was put out?'

'Why, I put it out myself, simply by shutting the register of the grate; as there was then no draught of air the soot soon ceased burning.'

'Then the neighbours did not break into the house?

'Oh, no; some of them knocked at the door when they saw the flame at the top of the chimney, but as I knew there was no danger, I thanked them for their kindness, but declined admitting them into the house, as it was quite unnecessary to give them trouble, and make a bustle for nothing. Poor Sally fared the worst, for she forgot to shut the door after her as I desired; so the sulphureous smell set her coughing, and she said she felt as if she should be suffocated.'

'Well, ma'am, so it is then that this great fire seems all to end in smoke. What might have been, people said was. You were afraid lest any spark should drop among the shavings; they said the timber was burnt. Sally said she felt as if she should be suffocated—they said she was suffocated and dead. So it proves that some people have a wonderful knack of making much out of a little. But I am afraid when they let their tongues run so far beyond the truth, they forget that carelessness about truth is often as mischievous as wilful falsehood.

MECHANICS' INSTITUTES AND SAVINGS' BANKS.

Among good habits the habit of economy in domestic matters generally is a very important one; in some respects it is like a fence which keeps you in the straight path and prevents trespassing on forbidden ground. And any sound practical measure likely to prove beneficial to those who depend for a living on their daily labour, is well deserving of consideration; and it is especially interesting to know that useful improvements sometimes originate with those not possessed of large means. The public baths and wash-houses which have proved so great a benefit wherever introduced, arose out of the kindness of a poor woman at Liverpool, who used to lend the use of her back-kitchen and copper to such of her neighbours as were without conveniences for washing. This and other instances which might be mentioned are encouraging proofs that the will to improve is pretty sure to find out the way.

In two or three of our large towns, 'Penny Banks' have been started as a means of enabling those who may have only a spare penny to lay it by in safety whenever they wish, and to add others as often as they are able. These Institutions, if properly conducted, will do good; but besides these, it is now proposed by Mr. C. W. Sikes of Huddersfield, to make Mechanics' Institutes all over the country serve as banks for savings. The ordinary Savings' Banks do not receive deposits of smaller amount than one shilling; there are many persons who are not always able to spare a shilling, though they could at times put by two-pence, three-pence, or sixpence. To such persons a bank for receiving these small sums without giving them much trouble, would be of real service, and enable many to begin a habit of economy, who otherwise would never have the perseverance to save their pence until they amounted to the shilling necessary to commence at one of the other banks.

It must be understood that the Mechanics' Institute is not to be the final resting-place for the money, but to serve as a 'preliminary' or first bank in which pennies may lie till they grow to pounds, and then the sum is to be transferred to one of the Government Savings' Banks. We see no reason why every Mechanics' Institute in the kingdom should not add to its usefulness in this way; simple lectures on the *power of the pence* might be given from time to time, so as to excite attention to the subject. How many thousands of pence are wasted for want of a little thought; yet a penny a-week will make four shillings and four-pence in a year, and in five years one pound one and eight-pence. Three-pence a-week is thirteen shillings a-year, three pounds five, in five years; and sixpence a week is of course double this amount or six pounds ten in five years, and so on in proportion. Little by little the copper turns into silver and gold, and when the sum saved amounts to a few pounds how encouraging it is to know that we have something laid up against 'a rainy day,' as the saying is. Mechanics' Institutes have done much good, but by thus promoting economical habits how widely their benefits would be increased. They have classes for many useful subjects of study and recreation; why not have 'Savings' Bank Classes?'

There should be no bar as to the time of taking in money ; deposits should be received whenever the doors are open.

Of course it would be necessary to have the sanction of the members for such a measure as this to be carried out, and care should be taken to prevent error or fraud. There must be no doubt whatever as to the safety of the money when paid. Mr. Sikes thinks that one evening in the week would be sufficient for receiving deposits, and suggests that "some of the leading members might form a committee for this special purpose, who should present to each depositor a small book, and so soon as his sum reached, say £2. 2*s*., pay it over to the Government Savings' Bank of the town, in the person's name, and give to him or her the new pass-book. This to be repeated until another guinea be accumulated, to be again transferred, and so on. No interest being allowed until paid over to the Government Savings' Bank, the little book-keeping requisite would be very simple, and from always being paid over when it reached £1. 1*s*. or £2. 2*s*., the liability incurred would be very limited. A list of the balances (with the ledger folio corresponding with the pass-book, and signed by the treasurer, to be suspended in the room *each half-year*) thus enabling each depositor to see *his money was safe*."

Towns and villages in which there is no Mechanics' Institute might immediately start one with the double purpose of teaching economy and diffusing knowledge. "If," as Mr. Sikes says, "a committee at each Institution would adopt the above, taking a heartfelt interest in the humble circumstances of the youthful members, and in a spirit sympathising and kindly, suggest, invite, nay, win them over, not only to reading the lesson, but *forming the habit* of true economy and of self-reliance (the noblest lessons for which classes could be formed) how cheering would be, the results ! How eagerly would parents encourage their children to join an Institution, where precept and practice went hand in hand, conferring ultimately golden benefits. Would not they be learning to *emulate*, and not to envy their employers? *Once established in better habits*, their feet firmly set in the path of *self-reliance*, how generally young men would grow up with a practical conviction, that to their own advancing intelligence and virtues must they look to work out their own advancing social welfare."

There is abundant room for such a practical measure as this ; it might become the means of preventing the farther growth of pauperism, which now costs the country nearly six millions of pounds every year. Lancashire and Yorkshire, each with a population of more than a million and a-half, have not more than about 70,000 savings' bank depositors. In Huddersfield too, where £400,000. are paid every year in wages, the savings in the bank amounted only to a little over £74,000. in thirty-two years. Thus, even in places where Savings' Banks have long been, there is much good work to be done, and we wish the Mechanics' Institutes all success in the doing of it. We conclude with a table from Mr. Sikes' pamphlet, showing how sums increase by the week, month, and year :

Per Day.		Per Week.		Per Month.		Per Year.			In Five Years.		
s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*	£.	*s.*	*d.*
		0	1	0	4	0	4	4	1	1	8
		0	3	1	0	0	13	0	3	5	0
		0	6	2	0	1	6	0	6	10	0
		1	0	4	0	2	12	0	13	0	0
0	1	0	7	2	4	1	10	5	7	12	1
0	3	1	9	7	0	4	11	3	22	16	3
0	6	3	6	14	0	9	2	6	45	12	6

INSTANCES OF MUSCULAR STRENGTH.

The muscular power of the human body is indeed wonderful. A Turkish porter will trot at a rapid pace, and carry a weight of six hundred pounds. Milo, a celebrated athletic Crotonian, in Italy, accustomed himself to carry the greatest burthens, and by degrees became a monster in strength. It is said, that he carried an ox on his shoulder, four years old, and weighing upwards of one thousand pounds, for above forty yards, and afterwards killed it with one blow of his fist ! He was seven times crowned at the Pythian games, and six at the Olympic. He presented himself the seventh time, but no one had the courage to enter the lists against him. He was one of the disciples of Pythagoras, and to his uncommon strength the learned preceptor and his pupils owed their lives. The pillar which supported the roof of the school suddenly gave way, but Milo supported the whole weight of the building, and gave the philosopher time to escape. In his old age Milo attempted to pull up a tree by the roots and break it. He partly effected it; but his strength being gradually exhausted, the severed parts came together again, and held him fast by the hand. He was then alone; and being unable to disengage himself, died in that position.

Haller mentions that he saw a man whose finger being caught in a chain at the bottom of a mine, by keeping it forcibly bent, supported by that means the weight of his whole body—one hundred and fifty pounds—until he was drawn up to the surface, a distance of six hundred feet.

Augustus XI. King of Poland, could roll up in his hands a silver plate like a sheet of paper, and twist the strongest horse-shoe asunder.

A lion is said to have left the impression of his teeth on a piece of solid iron.

The most prodigious power of muscle is exhibited by fish. The whale moves with a velocity through the dense medium of water, that would carry him, if continued at the same rate, round the world in a little less than a fortnight; and a sword-fish has been known to strike his weapon quite through the oak plank of a ship.

MARRIED LIFE.

The following beautiful and true sentiments are from the pen of that charming writer, Fredrika Bremer, whose observations might well become rules of life, so appropriate are they to many of its phases:—" Deceive not one another in small things nor in great. One little single lie has, before now, disturbed a whole married life, a small cause has often great consequences. Fold not the arms together and sit idle. 'Laziness is the devil's cushion.' Do not run much from home. One's own hearth is of more worth than gold. Many a marriage, my friends, begins like the rosy morning, and then falls away like a snow-wreath. And why, my friends? Because the married pair neglect to be as well pleasing to each other after marriage as before. Endeavour always, my children, to please one another; but at the same time keep God in your thoughts. Lavish not all your love on to-day, for remember that marriage has its to-morrow likewise, and its day after to-morrow, too. Spare, as one may say, fuel for the winter. Consider, my daughters, what the word wife expresses. The married woman is the husband's domestic faith; in her hand he must be able to confide house and family; be able to entrust to her the key of his heart, as well as the key of his eating-room. His honour and his home are under her keeping—his well-being in her hand. Think of this! And you, sons, be faithful husbands, and good fathers of families. Act so that your wives shall esteem and love you."

COTTAGE FARMER'S CALENDAR.

BY MARTIN DOYLE—MAY.

The Field.—In the course of this month you will probably have completed the second hoeing of your wheat and winter beans. The first hoeing should have been done in dry weather during the preceding months. The greater regularity and ease with which drill crops can be hoed, is one of the reasons why the broadcast system should be abandoned. Weeds should never be permitted to grow through your crops; they not only exhaust the elements of fertility contained in the land, but check the progress of the cultivated plants, and render the land foul for succeeding ones. If you do not see weeds flourishing on the surface, you will assuredly find them beneath it, if you use your hoe. Couch is a sad tormentor, which you should endeavour to get rid of. It particularly infests land which has been under successive and ill-hoed corn crops, and is in fact a wild wheat plant, and called *triticum repens*, from its creeping nature. Every joint or *stole* of it shoots forth, like that of the convolvulus, which is the plague of gardens; and therefore it should be cleared out entirely if possible. Without regular and frequent successions of green crops, it is impossible to get rid of it.

With perfect culture—as in a well-cultivated garden, it disappears. Its presence therefore is almost a certain proof of imperfect tillage. Burn every atom of it, when you have collected it.

Lucerne ought to be cultivated much more than it is, on loose calcareous (limy) soils. Its exceeding value is well known in the chalk soil of Kent, but in other counties it is almost unknown. The ground should be well prepared for it by previous cleansing crops. It is generally sown broadcast in France, but it ought to be sown in drills about sixteen inches apart, in order to admit of weeding. As it is tap-rooted, and will penetrate many feet into the soil, and produce three, and even four cuttings every year, if manured, it is all-important to have a dry and free subsoil for it. The only objection to it on a very limited portion of land is. that wherever it is sown and established it should remain for ten or twelve years; thereby preventing rotations on the space it occupies. But it is so nutritious a plant—so greedily devoured by cattle and pigs, and so luxuriant in produce, that no occupier of deep loamy or any porous *calcareous* soil, should hesitate to give up some enclosed portion of land to it. In the driest weather, when all surrounding vegetation is withered, lucerne is green and flourishing, drawing the necessary moisture from the depths below. It is only one-third less nutritive than carrots, and has more than twice the nutritiveness of white beet: 80 lbs. of it green, is enough for the largest cow during twenty-four hours, and 40 lbs. for a horse. It should never be grazed, for the nipping of the crown is an extreme injury to the plant. The sowing of barley and clover may still proceed in the beginning of the month, as also that of the Altringham carrot. In the northern parts of our country the sowing of barley and the planting of potatos is still seasonable. After the second hoeing of beans, rape seed may be beneficially scattered over the ground as a bite for sheep in the autumn, which by their manure give an ample return for the trifling exhaustion of the land occasioned by the young rape plants. Sow another succession of vetches if wanted. Roll wheat and every other crop that requires it,—not omitting grass-land. Do not be tempted to turn out your cattle,—feed them on the green rye and every sort of artificial and seasonable food that you can procure for them in house.

The Garden.—This is a more certain month than the last for sowing kidney-beans of all kinds. There ought not to be a vacant spot in the garden at the close of this month. Sow turnips of the kind called the nimble tailors, peas, beans, carrots, and parsnips. The bishop's early dwarf peas require no stakes. Woodford's green marrow peas, and the dwarf Windsor beans are good varieties. Sow onions, and transplant them where they may be wanted; they will grow pretty well if they be pretty stout when removed, and carefully set and watered. Indeed watering will probably now be very needful for various crops. Liquid manure, sufficiently diluted, will promote the growth of every plant surprisingly, and still more if guano be dissolved in it. Watering after sunset is the best time, as there will be no injurious evaporation during the night, such as the sun's rays occasion in the day time. In fact, watering in hot dry weather is prejudicial, unless performed so that the process of evaporation by the sun's rays cannot affect the leaves. Prick out the cabbages sown last month. By doing this the plants become furnished with more mouths (roots), and therefore more vigorous. Those that are left shouldering each other in the seedling bed, and disputing under ground for their share of food, are never worth putting out. They are weak, lank, unsubstantial things which never become strong. All plants shifted to fresh quarters should be watered at night at the roots, and shaded from the sun until they have completely fixed themselves. Sow round-leaved spinach, and wherever there is waste space, cos-lettuce seed: your pigs will eat the plants with avidity, if you are not fond of a salad. Pot-herbs, such as sweet basil, sage, rosemary, balm, and sweet thyme should also be sown now. Celery plants that have been raised in a moderate hot bed, should be pricked out: you may still sow the seed. What is soup without celery? The nonpareil and early York cabbages are now abundant at table: they help to furnish the cottager's table, and in their young and delicate state are truly delicious. The economical distribution of seed ought to be universally attended to. In the sowing of very small garden seeds, the trouble of drilling them is constantly assigned as a reason for scattering them broadcast. Mr. Cobbett in his 'Cottage Gardener,' exposes the extravagance and ill effects of this latter method very clearly. By it the sowing of the seeds is unequal, the depth of the sowing is unequal, and when the plants come up accompanied by weeds, it is hard to take out these without hurting the true plants; the tearing of the delicate fibres of the plants we want to retain in the ground is very injurious to them by loosening their hold in the ground. Plants cannot be thinned out with perfect regularity, nor can the earth be stirred deeply about their roots unless they stand in rows. A hand-driller resembling a wooden hay-rake, (but with a longer head) with moveable teeth, which can be set at the required distances and depths, will answer perfectly for drilling any small seeds.

VARIETIES.

Four Good Habits. — There were four good habits which a wise and good man earnestly recommended in his counsels and by his own example, and which he considered essentially necessary for the happy management of temporal concerns: these are punctuality, accuracy, steadiness, and dispatch. Without the first, time is wasted, those who rely on us are irritated and disappointed, and nothing is done in its proper time and place. Without the second, mistakes the most hurtful to our own credit and interest and that of others may be committed. Without the third, nothing can be well done; and without the fourth, opportunities of advantage are lost which it is impossible to recal.

Moral Strength.—Everything is possible for him who possesses courage and activity; and to the timid and hesitating everything is impossible because it seems so.

Order.—Order is the sanity of the mind, the health of the body, the peace of the city, the security of the state. As the beams to a house, as the bones to the microcosm of man, so is order to all things.—*Southey.*

Greenock Penny Bank.—A bank has been established at Greenock on a new plan. In a population of 40,000, from 5000 depositors, £1106. 17s. 4d. was collected in 791 days. The object of the institution is to foster frugal economy, affording an opportunity for the weekly and daily deposit of the smallest sum of money, repayable at the end of every year. At Greenock the ' Penny Bank ' is open every evening, for the reception of sums from one penny to one shilling, and the cash is daily deposited in the Savings' Bank, in the names of five responsible trustees. A similar establishment is in operation at Hull.

Yankees.—Nearly all the suicides in this country are by foreigners. Yankees rarely make away with themselves; for nearly every one thinks he has a chance of becoming President, and, at any rate, his curiosity prompts him to live on, just to see what he *will* come to.—*American Paper.*

Mechanical Leech. — The *Journal des Debats* describes an important discovery, which occupies the attention of the French scientific world. It is a mechanical leech, invented by Mr. Alexander, a civil engineer already celebrated for his useful discoveries. All the scientific bodies, after satisfactory trials, have caused this leech to be adopted in all the hospitals; having proved not only the immense economy of its use, but what is better, the decided advantage which it has over the natural leech, often so scarce, always repugnant to the patient, and sometimes dangerous.

Causes and Consequences.—Remember that lofty trees grow from diminutive seeds; copious rivers flow from small fountains; slender wires often sustain ponderous weights; injury to the smallest nerves may occasion the most agonizing sensation; the derangement of the least wheel or pivot may render useless the greatest machine of which it is a part; an immense crop of errors may spring from the least root of falsehood; a glorious intellectual light may be kindled by the minutest sparks of truth; and every principle is more diffusive and operative by reason of its intrinsic energy than of its magnitude.—*Dr. Gregory's Farewell Address.*

Something Remarkable.—An old gentleman, who was something of an antiquary, retired to spend his evening of life in a remote village in one of the Welsh counties. He was exceedingly desirous of picking up whatever information he could find respecting the locality in which he had fixed himself. In one of these rambles he encountered an old Welsh farmer, when the following dialogue ensued:—' Good morning, friend, can you tell me if there is anything remarkable in this neighbourhood?' ' Anything remarkable, did you say?' inquired the old farmer, not quite sure what was meant by the word. ' Yes, my good man, anything remarkable.' ' Oh! ay, well, iss,' exclaimed the farmer, as a light broke in upon him; ' iss, iss — remarkable—ay, indeed! Do you see that field sir?—Do you see that field? Well, it was there that *Oliver Cromwell fought with Julius Saisar.*'

The Corner.

Conscience. — Lord Erskine was distinguished through life for independence of principle, for his scrupulous adherence to truth. He once explained the rules of his conduct, which ought to be deeply engraven on every heart. He said, 'It was a first command and counsel of my earliest youth always to do what my conscience told me to be a duty, *and to leave the consequence to God.* I shall carry with me the memory, and I trust the practice of this paternal lesson to the grave. I have hitherto followed it, and have no reason to complain that my obedience to it has been a temporal sacrifice. I have found it, on the contrary, the road to prosperity and wealth: and I shall point out the same path to my children for their pursuit.'

Serious Thought.—It is impossible to think, and not sometimes to think on death. Hope, indeed, has many delusions; whatever is possible, however unlikely, it will teach us to promise ourselves; but death no man has escaped, and therefore no man can hope to escape it.—*Johnson.*

HOME EDUCATION.

PART V.—INTELLECTUAL TRAINING.

Without the aid of books, the intellectual training of children will never be well carried on, nor satisfactorily completed. All distinguished men have been given to the habit of careful reading; and it is utterly impossible to arrive at any tolerable degree of distinction, without this habit. 'Reading,' says Bacon, 'makes a full man; conversation, a ready man; and writing, an exact man.' That which he means by 'full,' can never be attained except by an extensive and thorough acquaintance with books. No genius, no power of inventing and creating thoughts, can ever supply a deficiency in this respect. The mightiest mind that was ever created, could, perhaps, here and there, strike out a road; but who would wish it to spend itself in beating about to discover a path, or even to make it, when the united minds of the generations who have gone before us, have done this for him? In order to have a judgment sound and correct, you must travel through the history of other times, and be able to compare the present with the past. To have the mind vigorous, you must refresh it, and strengthen it, by a continued contact with the mighty dead who have gone away, but have left their imperishable thoughts behind them. We want to have the mind continually expanding, and creating new thoughts, or, at least, feeding itself upon manly thoughts. What the food is to the blood which circulates through your veins, that reading is to the mind; and those who will not read, may despair of ever doing much in the world of mind. You can no more be the 'full man,' whom Bacon describes, without reading, than you can be vigorous and healthy without fresh nourishment. It would be no more reasonable to expect it, than to suppose that the Mississippi might roll on its flood of water to the ocean, though all its tributary streams were cut off, and it were replenished only by the occasional drops from the clouds! *

We commend the above extract to the serious attention of all parents who are anxious for the intellectual advancement of their children. It is, indeed, idle to expect much from our children in the way of mental progress, unless the means of such improvement be well supplied and used.

Happily, in spite of many drawbacks and discouragements, the family of every industrious working-man may have a library. The time is gone by, never to return, when only the rich could purchase books, and the poor had to go without. We live in times when a taste for reading may be indulged at no extravagant expense, and when a knowledge of almost all useful subjects may be obtained in publications of the cheapest order! Those who are old enough to remember the literary facilities of thirty or forty years ago,—especially the literature designed for children, must admit that a most decided improvement has taken place. Let us be thankful for this, and let us take care that our children reap the full benefit of these favourable circumstances.

One of the most important steps—perhaps the most important—in the intellectual training of children, is to inspire them with a taste for the instruction to be derived from books. Long before they have the power of reading for themselves, this taste may be implanted by reading to them, from books suited to their understandings, habits, and childish sympathies. It should, when practicable, form part of the daily routine of home life, to read to the younger children; none but those who have tried this plan can imagine the interest which a child of two or three years old takes in this exercise,—how eagerly such little ones look forward to the evening's reading,—how disappointed they are if, from any cause, it be omitted,—how intelligently they make remarks, or ask questions, about what they have heard,—how evidently their minds become strengthened,—and what rapid advancement they make in intellectual resources. A judicious parent would of course take care not to overstrain the attention of a child, by reading a great deal at a time, nor to puzzle his brain by reading what to him would be nonsense, because beyond the grasp of his yet feeble intellect. A little tact and watchfulness will prevent these mistakes. It will easily

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* Self-improvement.—Todd.

be seen when the attention of the listener tires or flags; then will be the time to leave off, though in the middle of a sentence. It will, as easily be observed when the subject is beyond his comprehension; and then the book should at once be laid aside. We need not fear that, because an excellent book is not interesting at one period of education, it will not become interesting at another. The child is always the best judge of what is suited to his present capacity. If he says, 'such a book tires me;' the preceptor should never answer with a forbidding, reproachful look, 'I am surprised at that; it is no great proof of your taste; the book which you say tires you is written by one of the best authors,' and so on. The child is sorry for it, but cannot help it; and he concludes, if he be of a timid temper, that he has no taste or liking for what is in books. It is in vain to tell him that the book *is* interesting, and that he ought to be entertained by it. All he has to say, or think, in reply is,

> If it be not such to me,
> What care I how fine it be.*

These remarks are applicable to children of any age. Never should we urge them on to read what evidently does not interest them. At the best, it is labour in vain; but there is a worse result than this behind. A frequent disappointment of this sort, sours the mind, and renders it disinclined to seek refreshment and nourishment in books: it destroys the love of literature. Rather let us say, 'You are right not to read what tires you. It is true, the book is one which I take great pleasure in reading; but you are not so old as I am. Some day you will like to read it; but for the present I advise you to put it aside.' We are persuaded that this method will be found to answer very much better than that of laying down fixed rules about reading: telling the child that before he reads anything else, *this* book must be finished, or *that* subject investigated. Nevertheless, discrimination must doubtless be used: there must be some limits to the range given to our children in this particular, just as we would limit them to what is nutritious and wholesome in the sustenance of their bodies. We shall touch upon this subject when we presently speak of the choice of suitable books.

It is a good plan to encourage every child in a family to get together a little library of his own. Not as playthings, however, but as valuable property, to be preserved with care. Very young children may be thus brought to feel an interest in books, long before they can read them; and the idea that they are listening to what is in their own books, will often fix their attention, and excite an interest which otherwise would scarcely be felt. 'Mother, will you read out of one of *my* books, this evening?' is not unfrequently said, by children of two or three years old; and the satisfaction which is shown when the request is complied with, is not only harmless in its nature, but beneficial in its results. We would strongly recommend to all parents who are anxious that their children should early imbibe a love of intellectual pleasures, to cultivate in those children, as far as prudence will allow, a desire for books. We know that the possession of a library does not necessarily imply an acquaintance with its contents; and that children, as well as older folks, may fall into the error of valuing this kind of property for its looks rather than its intrinsic value. But this danger we believe to be very small, compared with that of despising or disliking book-knowledge altogether. We know, moreover, that the possession of, or the facility of reading many books, may lead to a desultory habit, fatal to real intellectual advancement of a high order; but this danger scarcely can exist where, after all, the supply must needs be limited. We admit that some persons have materially injured themselves and their families by wasting their resources in stretching beyond their means in the purchase of books. In this case, the love of books becomes a sort of vice, which like every other vicious habit, brings its own punishment. But we venture to say that where one individual has been thrown back in the world by this propensity, ten thousand have been ruined, body and soul, by sensual gratifications. Let us not then, from the dread of most remote and improbable dangers, shut our children out from one obvious source of intellectual improvement.

We trust we are writing to those who have libraries of their own. A large portion of our readers, we are happy to believe, are not indifferent to this object;

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* Edgeworth's Practical Education.

but still, we would say, let your children also, have personal property in books. A set, or three or four, or half a dozen separate hanging shelves, or simple book cases of some kind or other, which might easily be put together by any working man for his children, would be no despicable ornament to a cottage, especially when filled with neatly preserved little volumes, and kept in neat order. This, indeed, should be, insisted on, and made a condition on which the property is held, that each child should keep his own book-case and books in a satisfactory condition.

THE FRUITFUL SHILLING.

Mr. W.—a worthy gentleman, resident in the country, and well known to the writer of these lines, passing once through the streets of London, met a poor man who had formerly been in his employ as a labourer. The man looked care-worn and thin. Mr. W. inquired of his health and circumstances, 'Pretty well in health,' was the reply, 'but only middling in circumstances.' In fact, though his answer did not disclose so much, he and his family were in utter destitution. He had come to London to seek employment, and failing to obtain it was reduced to the last extremity. Mr. W., who was hastening to keep an appointment, put a shilling into the man's hand, and passed on. Scarcely had he lost sight of the man, when he regretted that his gift had been so small, 'and yet,' he thought, 'I know very little of him, or what may have brought him into poverty, or how he would have disposed of more money if it had been given to him. *That* will procure him a meal, and as he is well able to work, it must be hoped that he will find means to earn another before he needs it.' With this consideration he dismissed the affair from his mind. About a year afterwards, Mr. W. was again in London, and again met the man, whose decent clothing and cheerful countenance indicated a favourable change in his circumstances; indeed, so different was his appearance, that he would scarcely have been recognised, had he not himself accosted Mr. W. 'Sir,' said the poor fellow, 'I am bound to bless you and pray for you as long as I live. That shilling you gave me has been the making of me. Bad enough, sir, I wanted it for food, but I resolved first to turn it round, and get a meal out of it, and keep a shilling still. So I went up and down a few principal streets, and collected as many hare-skins as my shilling would purchase. These I disposed of to a hatter, and contented myself with such food as the profits would afford, still reserving the shilling as my stock-in-trade. I went on as long as the season lasted, and was soon able to trade more largely. As the profits were more than I needed to consume, they went to increase my capital. Going regularly to the hatters with skins, I got noticed, and occasionally employed. After a time my wife too got into regular work at binding hats; she is a handy industrious woman; soon takes a notion of doing anything. So, sir, one way and another we have ever since made a decent livelihood, and to you, sir, we are indebted for the foundation of it all. If it had not been for your timely aid, we might have perished, or at least have been driven to the parish poor-house, and never able to lift up our heads again. May a blessing attend you as long as you live!'

This pleasing interview was not forgotten; but after a lapse of years Mr. W. had the renewed satisfaction of ascertaining the continued welfare of the poor man and his family, and of being again gratefully reminded of his valuable shilling. It happened that he had some property, which was necessarily left during the night in a somewhat exposed situation on a wharf. He, therefore, spoke to a policeman, in whose district it lay, and requested his special vigilance. The young man respectfully bowed, and promised to do his best. Next day, the following conversation took place on the wharf, while the goods were being removed.

Policeman. 'I hope, sir, you find everything right?'

Mr. W. 'Quite so; I am obliged to you for your attention, and beg you to accept this trifle.'

Policeman. 'I thank you, sir, all the same, but I cannot accept anything; my engagement forbids it; and if it were otherwise, I should be bound to defend your property, by night or by day, to the utmost of my power. You have been a great benefactor to our family—but for you, I should not have been in my present situation.'

Mr. W. 'You surprise me. I do not recollect ever seeing you until you came here as policeman.'

Policeman. 'I dare say not, sir. I am the eldest son of ——, to whom you gave a shilling in London, fourteen or fifteen years ago. That shilling, sir, was the turning point with our family; we were then on the point of starving; but we have ever since been more and more thriving. My father is now superintendent of a division of police in London; and my brother and myself have been some time in this line. When the police was established here a short time since, I was sent down to take a department; and my parents charged me if ever I had an opportunity, to offer you their humble respects and grateful thanks. They live in a very comfortable way, at No. —, ——, and would be very happy if you would please to take rest or refreshment with them at any time that you may happen to be in London.'

How cheap is the luxury of doing good; and how rich the reward of benevolence, when the blessing of him that was ready to perish comes upon a benefactor, whom when the eye sees it blesses, and when the ear hears it gives thanks! How many thousand pounds have been spent on dissipation and self-indulgence, that failed to impart a gratification equal to that enjoyed by this benevolent individual, at the trifling expense of one shilling! The reader in humble life will do well to observe the advantages resulting from industry, frugality, and self-denial. Those who have but little, are often accustomed to think it is not worth trying to save. This poor man thought differently. He had but *one shilling.* If the whole had been spent on supplies for the present moment, a few hours would have renewed his wants; but many days or weeks might have elapsed without renewing his means of supply. Had he suffered the opportunity to escape of making that one shilling the basis of future subsistence, another opportunity might not have presented itself; but he—it should rather be said they, for his wife thought, and felt, and acted with him—wisely preferred a little present self-denial, industry, and forethought, with the hope of bettering their future condition, to a little present gratification with future wretchedness and poverty. There is always a present pleasure in a present voluntary sacrifice, for the hope of a future advantage; and a preference of future substantial good to present momentary gratification, is that which characterises the christian as different from the worldly-minded man.

A FEW WORDS ABOUT MILK.

Milk, as most persons know, is a very important and very useful article of diet; it is the sole nourishment of the young of a certain class of animals, called mammalia, which includes human beings. It is a food of nature's own providing; and nature, as is well known always provides what is best and most suitable for her creatures. In icy Lapland the milk of the rein-deer is the chief support of the inhabitants, and in the burning deserts of Africa camel's milk is the main sustenance of the wandering Arabs. Milk is found too in several plants and fruits, as though to spread its benefits as widely as possible. It is a perfect kind of food, and contains within itself all that is requisite for the growth and strength of the body. Nearly every person likes milk; what should we do without it?—is a question often asked, though not easily answered; and yet there are thousands of people, living in large cities and towns in this country, who scarcely know the taste of genuine milk.

However extraordinary this may appear, there is, unfortunately, too much certainty of its truth; it is one of those grievances which people submit to, when by a little effort it might be remedied. A small work has recently been published by Mr. Rugg, a member of the College of Surgeons, entitled 'Observations on London Milk,' which contains information likely to be useful in other parts of the kingdom as well as the metropolis, and to put consumers of milk on their guard against fraud.

The population of London is now two millions and a quarter, and allowing somewhat less than half-a-pint of milk to each person daily, the quantity needed would be five hundred thousand quarts every day, nearly two hundred millions of quarts in a year. To supply this great amount there must be fifty thousand cows, but no one believes that any thing like this number is actually kept for the use and benefit of the Londoners. The conclusion is, therefore, that milk is adulterated, and this to a fearful extent. It has been a long-standing joke against milkmen, that they make use very largely of the iron-tailed cow, or pump; but this is not the worst of it; offensive and injurious matters are mixed with the milk, and thus, that which should be a most beneficial article of diet is converted into a disgusting compound.

First of all, cows in London are kept in close, confined, and filthy sheds and stalls where it is impossible for them to be healthy; and it is pretty clear that an unhealthy animal cannot give wholesome milk. As Mr. Rugg observes; 'milk is especially requisite for children, and for the invalid, and how necessary that it be pure; for if milk be drunk which has been adulterated or drawn from diseased cows, it is in turn taken up in the system of those who drink it, and many diseases might be traced as having been sown in the first instance from this cause.'

More than one instance of fever and death is given as caused by the foul state of premises on which cows are kept in London: *dairies* as they are called. How different from the cool, clean and sweet dairies at a well-managed farm in the country! The smell of a city dairy is any thing but agreeable. The writer of the present article has often visited a small establishment not far from King's Cross, from which milk is supplied to the neighbourhood. The shop is about 10 feet square, and out of this a door opens into a dark closet, in which two, three, or four cows are kept night and day for months together. There is no light, no ventilation, and for want of air the stench is dreadful; sufficient to taint all the milk and butter within its influence.

The necessity and benefit of a constant supply of pure air have been more than once explained in the *Family Economist;* breathing foul air is a powerful cause of consumption, and of other distressing diseases. Such is the case with human beings, and the same is true of cows and other animals. 'One might as well,' says Mr. Rugg, 'think of eating the flesh of sheep that had been killed during the time they were afflicted with the small-pox, or the more common disease of the rot, as to drink milk drawn from unhealthy cows.' Again, 'cows, from not having that attention paid to the health of their skin, are frequently subject to diseases thereof, such as the mange, itch, &c. There is scarcely a cow-shed that one enters, but that some of the beasts will be found afflicted with the mange. I entered one shed under the Adelphi arches, where forty cows were kept, and every one of them had that disease; also another shed in the same locality, where the poor beasts never saw the light of heaven from year's end to year's end, the place being entirely lighted by gas, and the only ventilation that existed was by means of a small hole, not half a foot square, knocked out of the wall that forms part of the lane leading to the halfpenny steam-boats.'

The bad effects which follow from keeping cows in improper places are made worse by the manner in which the animals are fed. Instead of grass and roots in their purity, such as dairy farmers are careful to give, the food of London cows is mingled with 'swill,' or distillers' wash and brewers' grains, which has the effect of stimulating the udder, and so of making, for a time, a greater quantity of milk. This, according to Mr. Rugg, 'is at the expense of the health of the cow, and the quality of her milk—for it is of a very watery character, and of a most corrupt nature, as the blood from which it is secreted has been stimulated to an inflammatory and feverish condition.' The liver it appears becomes disordered, and causes the disease known as the 'yellows' or jaundice, 'and where a milch cow is so afflicted, the milk is lessened, and what is yielded is of a yellowish and stringy quality, their udders becoming hardened and suppurated; the milk is changed into a fluid resembling matter, and smells most offensively. This disease of their livers is analogous to those diseases of the liver of our own species, who partake too freely of Sir John Barleycorn and the juniper berry.' Thus with ill-ventilated stalls, improper food, and foul exhalations from the manure tanks and swill cisterns, the milk produced by London cows is a very different sort of fluid from that of cows kept in the country.

We now come to the adulterations; and these are numerous. Treacle, flour, water, whiting, size, annatto, used also for colouring cheese, and sugar of lead. The size is made from the refuse of skins and hides at the tan-yards; it is a sort of thin glue, and by mixing it with the flour or whiting in boiling water it prevents their settling down and betraying the roguery. Sugar of lead is a poison: a small lump put into a pailful of water gives it the look of milk, and that is the reason why dealers in milk make use of it. A gallon of the stuff poured into a gallon of milk makes two gallons, and being sold at four-pence a quart, there is a very handsome profit: more than cent per cent. Sugar of lead produces constipation, or confinement of the bowels, and the disease known as 'painter's colic;' and though the quantity may be not sufficient to destroy life, it is sure to disturb the stomach, especially of young children, and cause griping pains. Treacle is used to give an appearance of richness to the milk, but besides treacle, some very disagreeable things are used for the same purpose, and these are the brains of sheep. A surgeon who has examined London milk with a microscope states, that he has seen the brain contained in it, and can tell it by the smell. Mr. Rugg says further, 'when the dealers cannot procure sheep's brains, they get those of the ox or cow, and some even from those hotbeds of disease—the knackers' yards. The way they use them for this detestable purpose is by rubbing them up with their hands (which are not the cleanest one would wish to see) with some warm water, and a white milky-looking emulsion is the result. This is stirred up with the quantity of water which they intend to add to the milk. These brains not only enter into the composition of the London milk, to which they give a colourable tint and rich appearance, but also to London cream, and that much more largely in proportion to the quantity than in the milk. This mixing of the brains of animals in the milk and cream is well known to be carried on to a great extent in Paris, from whence it would appear it was first imported into this country, as it was found out to have been practised there long before it was known to exist here.'

Now, when we consider the great use and benefit of milk to all classes of the population, and especially to those in weak health we shall at once perceive that something ought to be done to put a stop to the practice of adulteration which has been shown to be so injurious. We do not believe that all traders in milk are dishonest, there are doubtless some honourable exceptions; but on the other hand there is a large number who look to cheating as a regular privilege of business. If such people will not be honest from inclination, they ought to be kept so by law. In Holland there are officers appointed by government to inspect the milk brought for sale into the towns, and if it be not of good quality, it is forthwith seized. Mr. Rugg is of opinion that a similar measure should be adopted in this country; also, that 'every cow-house, whether in town or country should be registered. The fee should not be less than 5*s.* annually, and when a cow became ill, the proprietor should be compelled, under a penalty of £5, recoverable before a magistrate, to make it immediately known to the inspector of the district where the cow-house is situated.' All these places, too, as well as retail dairies should be visited by inspectors to insure their being properly managed.

A few years ago it was calculated that 12,000 cows were kept for the supply of London with milk; if we now reckon that this number has been doubled since the opening of the railways, we are still very far from the 50,000 needed to give the quantity required by the two millions and a quarter of inhabitants; and therefore the lack must be made up in some way, and as we have seen, a very bad way it is. Milk is heavier than water; and an instrument called a *lactometer* or milk-measurer can be used to test its quality, but it will not detect all the adulterations. If farinaceous substances, flour, potatos, arrow-root and such like are mixed with milk, they may be found out by pouring in a few drops of *iodine* which turn the whole blue. We have called attention to Mr. Rugg's statements because we believe that much benefit, public and private, would follow from a removal of the evil which he points out. If only half of what he says be true there is cause enough for interference.

THE SNOW STORM.

No time was to be lost; and we descended the mountain at a far quicker rate than we had gone up it. The wind rose rapidly, moaning mournfully through the passes of the mountain, and frequently carrying with it dense showers of snow. The thickest of these showers, however, fell above where we were, and the wind still came from behind us, though gradually veering round in a manner which plainly showed us that it would be right ahead before we reached home. Every moment brought us lower; and we went merrily on, though with certain anxious glances occasionally to windward. Nor was our alarm unfounded; for just as we turned an angle of the mountain which brought us within view of the shepherd's house perched on the opposite hill side, with a good hour's walk and the river between us and it, we were met by a blast of wind and a shower of snow, half drifting and half falling from the clouds, which took away our breath, and nearly blew us both backwards, shutting out the view of every thing ten yards from our faces. We stopped and looked at each other. 'This is geyan sharp,' said the shepherd; 'but we mustn't lose a moment's time, or we shall be smothered in the drift; so come on, sir.' And on we went. Bad as it was, we did not dare to stop for its abating; and having fortunately seen the cottage for a moment, we knew that our course for the present lay straight down the mountain. After struggling on for some time, we came to a part of the ground which rather puzzled us, as instead of being a steep slope, it was perfectly flat: a break, however, in the storm allowed us to see for a moment some of the birch trees on the opposite side of the river, which we judged were not far from our destination. The river itself we could not see, but the glimpse we had caught of the trees guided us for another start; and we went onwards as rapidly as we could, until the storm again closed round us with such violence that we could scarcely stand upright against it. We began now at times to hear the river; and we made straight for the sound, knowing that it must be crossed before we could reach home, and hoping to recognise some bend or rock in it which would guide us on our way. At last we came to the flat valley through which the river ran; but here the drift was tremendous; and it was with the utmost difficulty that we got to the water's edge. When there, we were fairly puzzled by the changed aspect of everything; but suddenly the evening became lighter, and the drifting snow not quite so dense. We saw that we should soon be able to ascertain where we were; so we halted for a minute or two, stamping about to keep ourselves from freezing. Very soon a small bit of blue sky appeared overhead, but in a moment it was again concealed by the flying shower. The next time, however, that the blue sky appeared, it was for a longer period, and the snow entirely ceased, allowing us to see our exact position; indeed, we were very nearly opposite the house, and within half a mile of it. The river had to be crossed, and it was impossible to find the stepping-stones; but no time was to be lost, as a fresh drift began to appear to windward: so in we went, and dashed through the stream, which was not much above knee deep, excepting in certain spots, which we contrived to avoid. The poor dog was most unwilling at first to rise from his resting-place, but followed us well when once up. We soon made our way to the house, and got there just as another storm came on, which lasted till after dark, and through which, in our tired state, we never could have made our way. Donald and the shepherd's family were in a state of great anxiety about us, knowing that there would have been no possible means of affording us assistance, had we been bewildered or wearied out upon the mountain. The shepherd himself was fairly knocked up, and could scarcely be prevailed upon to take either food or drink, or even to put off his frozen clothes, before flinging himself on his bed. For my own part, I soon became as comfortable as possible, and slept as soundly and dreamlessly as such exercise only can make one do. I must candidly confess, however, that I made an inward vow against ptarmigan shooting again upon snow-covered mountains.—*A Tour in Sutherlandshire, by Charles St. John, Esq.*

RECIPES,

AND ANSWERS TO INQUIRERS.

Methods of making Yeast.—Water, two quarts; hops, one ounce; potatos, after being peeled, boiled, mashed, and rubbed through a colander, one pound. Boil the hops in the water twenty minutes, then strain. Mix the liquor with the mashed potato, and set it over the fire where it must remain, being frequently stirred, till it just comes to boil. Meanwhile prepare a pan or platter to receive it. This vessel should be wider at top than at bottom. In it put half-a-pound of flour, which mix to a smooth paste with cold water. To this add the hot mixture, stirring it well while pouring, and after. When the whole has cooled to the warmth of new milk, stir in a pint of fresh, solid yeast, well mixed with a quarter of a pound of dried flour. Cover up the vessel, and let it stand in a warm place to ferment. The time required for this purpose, will vary with the temperature of the season. It must be observed when the fermentation has reached its height, and begins to lower; for the yeast is then fit for use, or to put away for keeping. It must be bottled and closely corked; in a cool place it will keep good for weeks. To procure a further supply without again requiring brewers' yeast, reserve one pound of the old yeast, which mix with the flour.

In using this yeast, observe—1. One pound is sufficient for twelve or fourteen pounds of flour. It is to be put in a hole in the middle of the flour, in the same manner as common yeast. 2. The usual portion of salt is to be mixed with the flour. 3. The water used for mixing up should be *soft*, and warmer than is used for yeast-raised bread generally; in cold weather, two-thirds boiling water to one-third cold; in hot weather, half-and-half. 4. The dough when raised and kneaded will require longer time for rising. It should be kept in a warm place, from five hours to ten hours before baking. If to be baked in tins, it may be set in the tins to rise. If to be baked on the oven floor, the lump must be kept to rise all in one, and made up into loaves just before putting into the oven.

The Yeast used at Ackworth School is prepared as follows.—Hops one ounce, boil in one gallon of soft water twenty minutes. Mix four-table spoonfuls of flour with cold water, stir it to a smooth paste; to this strain the hop liquor, stirring it all the time to prevent knotting. When milk-warm, add one pint of brewers' yeast, place it by the fire-side, and let it stand twenty-four hours to ferment. For future occasions reserve one pint of home-made yeast, instead of using brewers' yeast. Bottle, cork close, and keep in a cool place. At the time of using, boil six middling-sized potatos, mash them smoothly with half-a-pint of hot water. Moisten four large spoonfuls of flour with cold water, and stir to a smooth paste, with as much more cold water as will make half-a-pint in all, and mix with the mashed potatos. When the whole is milk-warm, add one pint of the bottled liquor. Stir together, well cover up, and place by the fire-side to be kept warm till morning; when it will be ready to add to the flour. The above quantity is enough for a stone and a-half of flour, which is to be made up into dough in the usual manner, but will require to stand six hours in a warm place to rise before baking. The Ackworth yeast is reckoned to keep good two months.

Cobbett's Yeast Cakes.—Ingredients.—Indian corn-meal, seven pounds. (If this cannot be had, white pea-meal, or barley-flour will do.) Rye-flour, three-and-a-half pounds; hops, three ounces; boiling water, one gallon. *Method of preparing.*—Separate the hops by the hand—strew them in the boiling water, and boil half-an-hour. Strain the liquor into an earthen vessel, and while hot stir in the rye-flour. When fermentation commences, again stir briskly, keep in a warm place. Next day, when the mass is working, add the Indian meal, stirring it well. Before all the meal is added, it will have become stiff dough, which knead well, and then roll out as a pie-crust to the thickness of one-third of an inch, and cut into cakes with a tumbler-glass, a canister lid, or any thing else that will serve the purpose. Place these cakes on a board or tray, and set them in the sun to dry. Turn them every day, until they become quite hard. They must be sheltered from wet, but require both sun and air to dry them. They must be kept perfectly free from damp, and will keep good a year. A box like a salt-box, in the chimney corner, is a good place for keeping them. When required for use, take one, two, or more of these cakes (according to the quantity of flour to be made up), break them in bits, put them in hot water, and let the vessel containing them stand all night near a fire. By morning they will have dissolved, and the entire liquid is to be used in 'setting sponge,' just as if it were common yeast.

Observations.—The length of time required in the two former recipes for the dough to be kept 'near a fire,' in order to rise, before baking, and in the last, the yeast cakes being left a whole night 'near a fire' to dissolve, would render them almost useless to persons who live where fuel is scarce and dear—who seldom indulge themselves with a 'good fire,' and never keep one burning longer than is absolutely needed. Such persons, when they find a difficulty in obtaining yeast for their baking, may be glad to know that excellent bread may be raised by means of carbonate of soda and sour butter-milk—the sourer the better. One ounce of carbonate of soda is sufficient for twelve pounds of flour, with which it is to be very thoroughly mixed, together with the usual quantity of salt. The butter-milk is to be used instead of water for wetting the bread. If there is not quite enough butter-milk for the purpose a little *cold* water may be used with it; but all butter-milk is better. The dough will be ready for baking in a quarter-of-an hour, but will not be injured by waiting an hour or more.

Salad.—Cut an equal weight of cucumber, apple, and onion, thin and small. Put them into a quart stone pickle jar. Strew a little salt and cayenne pepper over them. Add a wine-glass full of best India soy, a wine-glass full of white wine, and fill up the jar with vinegar. You may use it immediately.

To preserve Rhubarb.—The following recipe, if rightly followed, will make a most delicious preserve. We have tasted some that could scarcely be distinguished from that made with green-gages, and was not only used in puddings and pastry, but brought out at tea, along with preserved strawberries, &c.—To one and a quarter pounds of rhubarb, put one pound loaf-sugar, half-ounce bitter-almonds, and about half a lemon-peel chopped fine. Boil all together. It will require as much boiling as any preserve, and still more if the rhubarb be rather old. In the latter case also, the sticks must be peeled. Care must be taken to wipe the rhubarb perfectly dry, if not so when gathered.

To prevent bottled Beer or Wine from becoming flat.—When opened and corked up again, either turn the bottle cork downwards, (secured from falling), or lay it on its side immediately, in such a position that no air can enter at the neck above the liquid.

Bell's Biscuits.—Three ounces flour, three ounces ground rice, six ounces sifted lump sugar, quarter-pound of butter worked to a cream. Beat up one egg, add it to the butter, with the grated peel of half a lemon. Then mix in the sugar, and afterwards the flour and rice. Drop in small lumps on floured tins to bake, allowing them room to spread. They require from five to ten minutes in a brisk oven.

To keep Suet.—If chopped suet be spread on a dish, and a little salt sprinkled over, it will keep much better than without this precaution. No salt will be required in making the puddings. In hot weather the suet should be put into strong salt and water, to be changed every few days.

Syrup of coltsfoot for colds, &c.—Take of coltsfoot, six ounces; maidenhair, two ounces; hyssop, one ounce; liquorice-root one ounce; boil them in two quarts of spring-water till one-fourth is consumed; then strain it, and put to the liquor two pounds of fine powder-sugar; clarify it with the whites of eggs, and boil till it is nearly as thick as honey.

To clarify Honey.—Take six pounds of honey, a pound and three quarters of water, two ounces and a quarter of pounded chalk, five ounces of coal (powdered, washed, and well dried), the whites of three eggs beaten in three ounces of water, for each pound of honey. Put the honey, water, chalk, and eggs into a copper vessel capable of holding about one-third more than the above quantities; let them boil for two minutes, throw in the coal, mixing it with a spoon, and continue the boiling two minutes longer; then take the saucepan from the fire, and let it stand nearly a quarter of an hour, that the liquor may cool; then take a new sieve (which must be well washed, or it will impart a disagreeable taste,) pass the honey through it, taking care to filter the first drops twice, as they generally carry with them some portion of the coal. The syrup which still adheres to the coal, and other materials, may be separated as follows: pour boiling water on them until they no longer retain any sweetness; then put these different waters together, set them over a large fire to evaporate till the syrup only remains. This syrup contracts the flavour of barley-sugar, and must not be added to the clarified honey.

Whooping Cough.—It is very true that there is no specific cure for this trying disease, but something may be done towards alleviating it. The old-fashioned country notions of dragging the poor children out of bed in all weathers, and at unseasonable hours, to wander over grass all loaded with dew, for the purpose of lying down in the spot from which the sheep have just risen, and of otherwise driving them from the shelter of the roof, in cold winds, or scorching sun, because 'they can't have too much air in the whooping cough, and because mother and grandmother did and said the like, and why shouldn't we?' show how little the true nature of the malady is understood, and how much the sufferings of the poor children are aggravated. From time immemorial, the breathing of the same air with the sheep has been reckoned 'a wonderful fine thing,' and the following-up of divers charms and curious observances known to country folks, has been thought equally efficacious, but a few plain hints may be better than either. Treat the whooping cough with the same care as you would any other cough. Keep the children warmly clothed, and dryly lodged, and in the house, at all times, except in warm sunny days, when air and exercise in moderation, observing that they do not overheat themselves, may do good. Put their feet in a pan of warm water just before they go to bed, and be careful to wipe them dry and wrap them in flannel. During the day they must wear woollen stockings, and thick-soled shoes. Let their drink be toast-water, tea, and raspberry vinegar mixed with water, two table-spoonfuls to a half-pint, or less if it be very sharp. Red or black currant jelly dissolved in water makes a pleasant cool drink. Be sure you give no kind of quack medicines—but an occasional dose of simple opening medicine if the bowels are confined; and a quarter-of-a-grain, or half-a-grain of plain ipecacuanha powder in a teaspoonful of gruel or jelly at bed time. Rub the chest, and between the shoulders, with equal parts of rum and turpentine, adding a little oil if it is too harsh for the skin. The child might suck an ipecacuanha lozenge two or three times a day. Effervescing saline draughts are very grateful and beneficial, where there is not only continual nausea, but frequent sickness from the spasmodic nature of the cough. If it be attended with pain in the chest or side, seek advice from a medical man without delay, as leeches, or bleeding at the arm, or a blister, may be required to ward off the danger of breaking a blood vessel, or of other injury to the lungs.

Cure for Wasp Stings.—It is a fact worth knowing at this season of the year when wasps are so troublesome with their stings, that no application will afford such instantaneous relief, as a drop of 'liquor potassæ,' (potash-water); indeed its effects are so unfailing, that it may be termed, a *specific* cure. It operates by neutralizing the injected poison, which is undoubtedly of an acrid nature. Families and persons who have the care of children, will do well to have always at hand a small quantity of this solution, which should be kept in a *stoppered* phial. It is not an expensive application; a *quarter of an ounce* will be quite sufficient to order at once, and a single drop placed on the wound, (which should be first slightly opened), is all that is required.

Oil and Water Gilding.—In oil gilding, the frame is first covered with a composition of whiting and parchment size, then with a coating of '*oil gold size,*' (a kind of varnish), upon which when nearly dry, gold leaf is applied.

In water-gilding, a size mixed with *water* is used. Parts of the frame are burnished, other parts left *dead.* This is the most beautiful and expensive style of gilding, but it does not bear washing as oil gilding does.

['The Carver and Gilder,' published by Knight, furnishes much useful information on this subject.]

To mount Prints or Maps.—Upon a table, floor, or board, stretch a piece of calico or smooth canvas, by first fixing it with tacks along one side, then straining it tightly with one hand, and driving the tacks with the other: nail the remaining edges, leaving no wrinkles on the surface. Paste the back of the print or map, fold it together, and let it remain until the paper is '*soaked*,' then open it, and place it evenly on the canvas, cover it with a sheet of clean paper, and beginning in the middle, rub it down carefully with the hand, going from the centre all round to the edges, until all the air is excluded, and the paper adheres closely to the canvas. When quite dry, with a large camel's hair brush lay on a coating of parchment size, repeating this when dry: then varnish with mastic varnish. Parchment-size is made by boiling parchment cuttings in water, until it forms a jelly when cold. Mastic varnish may be procured at oil and colour-shops.

THE FIELD OF THE WORLD.

Sow in the morn thy seed,
At eve hold not thy hand;
To doubt and fear give thou no heed,
Broad-cast it o'er the land.

Beside all waters sow,
The highway furrows stock,
Drop it where thorns and thistles grow,
Scatter it on the rock.

The good the fruitful ground,
Expect not here nor there;
O'er hill and dale, by plots, 'tis found;
Go forth, then, everywhere.

Thou know'st not which may thrive,
The late or early sown;
Grace keeps the precious germs alive,
When and wherever strown.

And duly shall appear,
In verdure, beauty, strength,
The tender blade, the stalk, the ear,
And the full corn at length.

Thou canst not toil in vain;
Cold, heat, and moist, and dry,
Shall foster and mature the grain,
For garners in the sky.

Thence, when the glorious end,
The day of God is come,
The angel-reapers shall descend,
And Heaven cry 'Harvest home!'—JAMES MONTGOMERY.

ABOUT CANDLES.

Of all the means used for obtaining artificial light, candles are preferred by many people to every other. They are tolerably cheap, always ready for use, and not very difficult of management. Twenty years ago, no one was allowed to make candles without a license, a regulation which prevented many of the improvements that have since taken place. Of late years, as is pretty generally known, there has been a greater variety of candles, and of better quality, than formerly; and we think it likely that a few observations concerning them will prove useful in many quarters.

Tallow, from which candles and soap are made, is the suet and suet-like fat found in nearly all kinds of animals; that of sheep and oxen being the best, and most abundant. It is prepared for use by melting in a copper, when all the rough and skinny parts are separated, and pressed into large cakes called *greaves*, which is sold as food for dogs; and sometimes, it is said, for fattening pigs and ducks. A mixture of one-half of beef-suet and half mutton-suet is the best for mould candles; the beef-suet by itself would be too soft and greasy, but the mutton-suet gives hardness and polish, whereby the candles burn out less quickly, and can be handled without soiling the fingers. The fat of pigs should never be used, because it does not harden, and the candles made with it gutter and melt away very fast. The harder the tallow is the better: there are various ways of hardening; some manufacturers put in a small quantity of chalk or magnesia, or a little wax; arsenic too, is at times used for the same purpose, but this is very objectionable; the fumes of arsenic are poisonous, and it becomes unsafe to touch a sore place on the face or hands with a little warm tallow, as some persons are accustomed to do. Mould candles are mostly prepared in this way.

Common dip candles give a better light

than moulds, but if the wicks are not quite straight and smooth they burn unequally and wastefully. Sometimes the wicks are waxed before dipping, and although this makes them burn evenly, it diminishes the light. What are called composite candles or *stearine* are made of tallow that has been well squeezed, to take out all the oily part; this makes it more like wax, and consequently more lasting.

There is one objection to ordinary dip and mould candles; and that is the continual trouble of snuffing them. This trouble is very annoying, and besides, the light is always varying; growing dimmer as the snuff grows longer. Some people have a notion that it is a saving to have rather a long snuff on their candles, but they make a great mistake, for instead of being a saving it is a waste. A candle burning with a long snuff, as any one may see, smokes a good deal more than one properly snuffed, and all this smoke is just so much of the melted tallow, flying off unburnt, besides which there is a great loss of light. The proper length for the burning wick is generally a little more than half-an-inch; this enables the fat to be entirely consumed, there is very little smoke, and the light is as brilliant as it can be. On looking at a burning candle it will be seen that the top forms a sort of hollow cup, filled with melted tallow, which is drawn on all sides in a continual stream towards the wick. Now the great art is to keep this cup always full without running over; and this can only be done by careful snuffing. If the wick be snuffed too short the fat cannot be burnt as fast as it melts, and of course it runs over, and forms ugly ridges down the side of the candle, and people complain that the candles are bad and gutter away, when the mischief most frequently is due entirely to their own want of skill and attention. In snuffing candles therefore, as in many other circumstances of life, the happy medium is the best, neither too long nor too short, but just such a wick as gives all the light possible and no smoke.

If any one turns the wick of a candle a little on one side, it will be seen that the snuff outside of the flame falls away as fast as it is formed, so that if a candle be fixed in a sloping position it will never want snuffing. It would not, however, be easy to prevent the grease from dropping, and this has led to a contrivance for giving the wicks a twist and a bend, so that as fast as the candle melts away the wick opens; one part bends over to the edge of the flame on one side, and the other part on the other side, whereby not only is there the agreeable and useful light from a broad flame, but the trouble of snuffing is entirely avoided. Persons who use such candles find it very pleasant to work or read a whole evening by a steady light, which thus takes care of itself. Of all the sorts we have tried, we have found none so good as Palmer's patent candles: we have never once had to snuff them.

There is another objection to candles which must not be passed without notice, it is the inconvenience of burning short ends, and of making them stand properly in the candlestick, unless it happens to be an exact fit. Paper is commonly used for a holder, but how often does it happen when a candle burns low that the paper catches fire, and there is a general blaze, and outcry in the family. This can only be avoided by a proper use of the save-all; there is good economy in being careful of candle-ends, for they serve many purposes where a tall candle would not be desirable, and last much longer than is commonly supposed by those persons who burn them out in the hot candlestick. There is no longer any need to use paper, because small wedges made of thin metal are now used for holding candles in the candlestick; they are curved and ribbed so as not to slip, and can always be kept clean with little trouble. Most iron mongers sell them; and they may be commonly bought in the streets of London at a halfpenny each. If more than one or a pair of candles be burnt in an evening, it is a good plan to have others set up ready for lighting, in a second pair of candlesticks, and to do this, as well as to prepare short pieces in the save-alls, by daylight; by this means the trouble and waste are avoided of having to attend to these matters in a hurry after dark.

It is worth remembering that dips are the candles which best bear carrying about when alight; moulds and composition candles generally should not be moved while burning, as they are very liable to gutter and look unsightly.

In the Shetland Islands and some parts of Scotland people make candles for themselves; but it would not be desirable for those to do so who live in places where they can buy candles as fast as they want them. It is well to buy a quantity of candles at once whenever possible, because the tallow hardens and improves by keeping; they should be put in a perfectly dry place, and if they can be covered with bran so much the better. Those however, who are disposed to continue the practice may find Cobbett's instructions worth notice, the rather as he wrote for country people in humble circumstances. He tells us that his grandmother, who brought him up, never bought cotton-wick candles:—"She used to get the meadow-rushes, such as they tie the hop-shoots to the poles with. She cut them when they had attained their full substance, but were still *green.* The rush at this age consists of a body of *pith,* with a green skin on it; you cut off both ends of the rush and leave the prime part, which, on an average, may be about a foot and a-half long; then you take off all the green skin, except for about a fifth part of the way round the pith. Thus it is a piece of pith all but a little strip of skin in one part all the way up, which, observe, is necessary to hold the pith together all the way along.

"The rushes being thus prepared, the *grease* is melted, and put in a melted state into something that is as *long* as the rushes are. The rushes are put into the *grease,* soaked in it sufficiently, then taken out and laid in a bit of bark taken from a young tree, so as not to be too large. This bark is fixed up against the wall by a couple of straps put round it, and there it hangs for the purpose of holding the rushes.

"The rushes are carried about *in the hand;* but to sit by, or work by, or go to bed by, they are fixed in *stands* made for the purpose, some of which are high, to stand on the ground, and some low, to stand on a table. These stands have an iron clasp or bearer, something like a pair of *pliers,* to hold the rush in, and the rush is shifted forward from time to time, as it burns down to the thing that holds it.

"Now these rushes give a *better light* than a common small dip candle, and they cost next to nothing, though the labourer may with them have as much light as he pleases. You may do any sort of work by these candles, and if reading be your taste you may read as well by rush-light as you can by the light of other candles."

Use of Candle Snuffs for cleaning Glass.—Candle snuffs are generally thrown away as useless, they are however of great utility for cleaning mirrors and windows, especially the former. For this purpose take a small quantity of the burnt snuffs and rub them with a soft cloth upon the surface of the mirror. In a short time a splendid polish will appear, superior to that obtained by other means. We know those who clean the whole of the windows in a large house with snuffs; and we are told that not only are the windows cleaned much better but also much quicker than by the ordinary methods.

A Razor Strop Paste is also made of candle-snuffs, and answers very well. It consists in simply rubbing a small quantity of the snuffs upon the strop; this imparts a keener edge to the razor than when no such paste is employed. Mechi's celebrated Magic Razor Strop Paste is certainly an excellent article, but we question whether it be much superior to the ordinary and common-place substance now recommended.

AT HOME IN THE EVENING.

One of the grossest neglects of youth, producing incalculable mischief and ruin, is in the improper spending of the evenings. Darkness was created for quiet; home is the place of quiet. Darkness is temptation to misconduct; suffering the young to be out when the light of day does not restrain them from misconduct, is training them to it. We have already an abundant harvest of this seeding. Riots, mobs, crimes, giving a fearful foreboding, are the result of youth becoming fit agents of outrage, by running uncared for on evenings. What we see in these respects, is deplorable enough; but what is this, compared with what we do not see—multitudes making themselves miserable and noxious in this world,—and *what in the world to come?*

Parents should look at the truth, that evening pleasures and recreations are often dearly purchased:—the price, their own impaired comfort, and the blighted prospects of their offspring. It must be obvious, that in this matter there can be no prescribed rule. There can be no interdict of all evening recreations and employments, yet there is an evil not only destructive to youth, but planting thorns in many paths, and covering many lives with desolation. The reformation demanded must proceed from judgment and conscience, and for this purpose judgment and conscience must be enlightened. Heads of families must learn, that the place on earth, best adapted to be a blessing is—home; and by example and wholesome restraint they must teach this truth to all under them. Especially should home during Sabbath mornings and evenings be blessed indeed, when they gather the family into the circle of converse and instruction; and parents and children, masters and apprentices and servants, in the presence and by the grace of God, who has made them and placed them in their respective stations, raise themselves to the exalted level ot the truth, that they are invested with capacity assigned them by an all-wise Providence, to help each other onward to honour, glory, and immortality—eternal life. Souls perish in everlasting death; they perish through neglect; who would stand at the judgment of the Great Day, under the imputation of that neglect? Do you say, 'not I:' then think of these things.—*Anon.*

THE YOUNG GARDENER.

BY MARTIN DOYLE.—CHAPTER I.

They're all up! they're all up, Grandma,' exclaimed Richard Giles, as he entered his grandmother's bed-room, at peep of day, on a bright morning in January. 'Oh,' said the old lady, opening her eyes wide, 'then it's time for me to be up also.' 'Why, Grandma!' said Richard, laughing; 'you have not overslept yourself,—what I mean is, that the *radishes* are up in the hot-bed.' 'Well, child,' said she, 'if you are happy so am I, but there's no such wonder in the matter, that you need have roused me so early this cold frosty morning!' 'Oh, do get up and look at them,' replied the delighted and persevering boy, who then ran off to the hot-bed, rubbing his half-frozen fingers, in high glee, and nearly tumbling over a tub at the back-door in his hurry.

The widow Giles who had reared this orphan boy and a niece, who also lived with her, and helped her in the management of her cottage, had just sufficient income to maintain this small family in decency in a cheap country village.

The cottage had a garden in the rear, and a little flower-plot in front, enclosed from the street by a neat wooden paling: roses and jasmine covered the whole face of the house, and distinguished it from all others in the street; and in their seasons pots of flowering double primroses, geraniums, mignonette, myrtles and fuchsias embellished the cottage windows.

The garden had been, during many years, a source of pleasure and economy to Mrs. Giles, who besides having a great many pretty flowers in it, raised good vegetables. She never had occasion to buy any for the table, and as she only employed a workman now and then to prune and dig, for she and her young relatives did all the other work—this garden cost her little though it produced abundantly.

From his early boyhood, Richard Giles had been fond of gardening: its light labours had never been forced upon him, and therefore he considered them a real pleasure: his cousin, Jane Jenkins, loved flowers almost as much as he did, but household matters and the poultry kept her so busy that she had little leisure to take amusement in the garden, though she liked to look at pretty flowers and to gather nosegays.

Richard's strong taste for the pleasures of the garden appeared in many ways. At school when he wrote copies of his own choosing, they were something in this style,—

> " Then cometh May gallant and gay
> When fragrant flowers do thrive.
> Then cometh June with pleasant tune
> When fields with flowers are clad,
> And Phœbus bright is at his height,
> All creatures then are glad."

or perhaps a plain sentence, such as, " God placed the first man in a garden."

I have mentioned this trifling matter because it shews how Richard's mind dwelt on the garden even in school hours. After school hours when the scholars rushed with a clamorous shout to a neighbouring green to play, Richard hastened to his garden where he always found something to do, a bed to weed—or seeds to sow, or plants to prick or transplant out, or geraniums to clear from decayed leaves, or to put into new pots—or some pleasant job or other of this kind. Yet Richard was not by any means of a girlish disposition—though now but twelve years old he was a manly little fellow, and quite as active, determined, and courageous as any boy of his age: he would often play with them too, when there was nothing particular to do in the garden; he was just as lively and natural as other boys, but having a higher order of mind than his companions, he saw pleasures and beauties in the garden which did not affect them. He had nice little garden tools—a spade, a shovel, forks, two or three rakes of different sizes, hoes, a weeding trowel, a large and small watering pots, a wheelbarrow, a garden line on a reel, a dibber, several pots and saucers, and some other little articles which were useful and necessary.

But what of the radishes? Richard had collected some wheelbarrows full of decayed leaves and a little stable dung, and had prepared, with his own hands a small hot-bed; he had shaken the leaves and dung together several times, turned them again and again, after some days between each turning, and then made them into a bed about eighteen inches thick. Having no glasses, he was obliged to substitute for them some hoops, over which he threw matting to keep the heat in. When the bed became warm he took off the mats, and when it had cooled he put a few inches of nicely sifted earth over it, he then sowed the radish-seed evenly and put a covering of oiled calico over the hoops as a protection from frost.

It was on the day after the radish-seed had been sown, that Richard ran into his grandmother's room with the news that the plants had appeared above ground. This was a great *event* to him because he had never made a hot-bed before, and was not sure that he had done it rightly: perhaps, said he, it is too hot and will burn the seed, or perhaps it was too cold when the seeds were sown. But, up the plants started in health and vigour, the calico was removed every fine day, and thrown on the bed again at night lest sudden frost should destroy the plants.

Never had he experienced a purer pleasure than now, except once before when mustard and cress-seed which he had sown as a pretty compliment to the old lady, in the form of the letters G R A N D M O T H E R grew exactly as he wished. But a HOT-BED! there is something grand and consequential in the very name. And Richard began now to dream of melons and cucumbers. In short he had very ambitious notions after his late success.

Perhaps there was something in the weather too, which at this time made the boy so happy and confident. It was the beginning of a new year—sunshine in January, on a clear frosty day is very cheering to most people—especially to the young, who do not complain of rheumatism, and who take pleasure in throwing snowballs and rise—

> "At dawn when every grassy blade
> Droops with a diamond at its head,"

to make the most of a short bright day. We feel in January that the most cheerless months have passed; and hope rises in the hearts even of the old; brighter days are looked for—the days are lengthening too, even though life be shortening in its space. Richard had been counting minutes, the almanack informed him how each day was growing longer—he could rise a little earlier to-morrow, and do a little in the garden before school-hour, nine o'clock.

The radishes were pets to be minded for many days, and before they were fit for table hard frost came; but this did not surprise Richard, he knew that frost would loosen the soil that had been ribbed up, better than spade or hoe, he knew that it would destroy many grubs and worms too; and as he had put an awning of hoops and calico over the brocoli plants which were to flower in March, he was not afraid that they would be killed; he had some jobs to do within doors, labels of wood to cut, and to paint and letter them for spring flower seeds. When Jane Jenkins had nothing else to do with her hands, she helped to make paper bags for all the seeds that were to be saved in the next autumn. Then there was matting to be made of reed-straw for sheltering a row of peas, and some other early plants. If snow fell Richard slept more soundly, in the belief that a coverlid of it was as good as a blanket to the shrubs, and would protect them from the frost.

It was curious, indeed, to see this careful sensible little boy on a frosty morn brushing off the glittering frost from tender evergreens before the sun shone forth; because some person of knowledge had told him that it was the sudden melting of the frozen moisture, by the sun, which burnt up the stem and leaves.

He would have jumped out of bed in the coldest night to lay the calico quilt over his bed of radishes, if it had been possible that he could have forgotten to do so before evening. He was a tidy little boy too, he had a place for every thing, and every thing in its place. If he was called away from work, he put the rake, or the hoe, or spade, which he had been using, in its proper corner of the little tool-house; the garden line was never left unreeled, and lying on the ground after it was no longer wanted,—it was wound up and replaced on a shelf. Empty flower-pots were put together in sizes, the hammer and basket were hung upon the respective nails intended for each, and the brown paper seed-bags, with the names of all the small seeds written distinctly on the paper coverings in which they were folded, were put up in a drawer.

The pea and other stakes out of use, were carefully laid by from season to season—and all this was Richard's doing; was he not a careful boy, deserving of much praise? His grandmother at least thought he was; and though grandmothers make mistakes very often in giving praise where blame is more properly due, this was not so in the present case. Mrs. Giles had every reason to be well pleased with her grandson, who was not only a good boy at home, but also at school where he was at the head of his class. She shewed her approbation of Richard sometimes by giving him penny-pieces (she could not afford silver sixpences), which he did not lay out like other boys in lollipops, or gingerbread, or taffy, or anything of that kind to give a momentary pleasure to his appetite, but in the purchase of flower-seeds or flower-pots—or something for the garden. And as a reward for his abstinence, Mrs. Giles and Jane gave him a large share of the codlins which fell from the apple-trees, made into tarts and dumplings with plenty of brown sugar, or into sauce for a roast spare-rib of pork, or dressed in some other tempting way. And in summer he had gooseberries and currants for the trouble of picking them, so that, in fact, he had luxuries enough without lollipops, and such like.

When he was about twelve years old, Richard became a thinking and inquiring boy. His hands only had hitherto been employed; but now his mind became active. His grandmother thought and told every one that Richard had a wonderful genius for gardening; but in reality he knew nothing, and thought little of anything beyond the reach of his hands and actual practice. He sowed seeds, and saw them grow and ripen and decay; but he did not yet ponder upon the causes of those wondrous changes. He admired the beauty of a flower, and thought of our Saviour's expression, 'Consider the lilies of the field, how they grow; they toil not neither do they spin; and yet even Solomon in all his glory, was not arrayed like one of these;' but he did not yet reflect on the wonderful system of providence, by which the living principle in plants is continued, even after their decay—how they bear within themselves—seed after their kind; how we sow 'not that body that shall be, but bare grain it may chance of wheat, or some other grain,' and how God gives to every seed his own body, a body often so very beautiful! There were many simpler points too on which his mind had not yet dwelt—unless with a passing thought—why, for instance, different plants require different treatment? Why soil that is good for one kind is bad for another? Why some plants die away in winter and revive in spring, and why others entirely perish after a single season? Why some grow from seed only, and others from buds, layers, and bulbs? Why sun gives colour and flavour to fruits, and yet some plants dislike the sun and flourish in the shade? Such ideas were beginning to occur to his mind, when a circumstance happened which led him to enter into the delightful science of gardening, by means which shall be explained.

THE WAY TO BE HAPPY.

A story is told of two travellers in Lapland, which throws more light on the art of being happy than a whole volume of precepts and aphorisms. Upon a very cold day in the winter, they were driving along in a sledge, wrapped up in furs from head to foot. Even their faces were closely covered; and you could see hardly anything but their eyebrows; and these were white and glistening with frost. At length they saw a poor man who had sunk down, benumbed and frozen, in the snow. 'We must stop and help him,' said one of the travellers. 'Stop and help him,' replied the other; 'you will never think of stopping on such a day as this! We are half frozen ourselves, and ought to be at our journey's end as soon as possible.' 'But I cannot leave this man to perish,' rejoined the more humane traveller; 'I must go to his relief;' and he stopped his sledge. 'Come,' said he, 'come and help me to rouse him.' 'Not I,' replied the other, 'I have too much regard for my own life to expose myself to this freezing atmosphere more than is necessary. I will sit here, and keep myself as warm as I can, till you come back.' So saying, he resolutely kept his seat; while his companion hastened to the relief of the perishing man, whom they had so providentially discovered. The ordinary means for restoring consciousness and activity were tried with complete success. But the kind-hearted traveller was so intent upon saving the life of a fellow-creature, that he had forgotten his own exposure; and what were the consequences? Why, the very effort which he had made to warm the stranger, warmed himself!—And thus he had a two-fold reward. He had the sweet consciousness of doing a benevolent act, and he also found himself glowing from head to foot, by reason of the exertions which he had made. And how was it with his companion, who had been so much afraid of exposing himself? He was almost ready to freeze, notwithstanding the efforts he had been making to keep warm.

The lesson derived from this little incident is very obvious.

COTTAGE FARMER'S CALENDAR.

BY MARTIN DOYLE—JUNE.

The Field.—This is the favourite month for sowing Swedish turnips, which are greatly prized beyond all other sorts for solidity and hardiness, and for the excellence of their leaves as greens in spring. Being tap-rooted, however, they require a deeper soil than the globe sorts; but they repay any labour bestowed in the preparation of the ground, and the liberal allowance of dung or compost which they certainly require. Let them be grown in drills twenty-six inches apart. The common practice of crowding the plants is a false economy, for if the leaves have not free space for expanding, the growth of the whole plant is checked, and a stunted production is the consequence. A sprinkling of soot will prevent the fly from attacking the young plants, and ashes are a manure congenial with the nature of the turnip, but the solid and weighty Swede, requires more nourishment than any ashes can supply. If dung be scarce, bone manure is the best substitute. Let the crushed bones or dust be mixed with the dung, and the mixture may thus be rendered sufficiently powerful to manure the required extent of ground. Though potatos will succeed perfectly with fresh litter as manure, turnips and mangel-wurzel will not; they (particularly turnips which vegetate rapidly) require short well-rotted dung or compost of dung and earth almost in contact with the seed. This is a good season for burning weeds, the undersoil of headlands and peat, for any turnips or cabbage-seeds that are to be sown now or in the next month. Sow a seedling bed of Swedes, mangel-wurzel, common kale or rape, according to the nature of your land and your future wants, to supply any vacancies that may arise from failures in your regular crops. Consume as much of your vetches, clover, &c. in the *green* state as possible; thus will the mass of manure be increased. Above all, save the precious liquids from escaping by any means. 'Make hay while the sun shines.' The less a very small occupier has to make of it, however, the better. Do not wait until the grass seeds ripen, else both the soil and crop will be injured. Give as little sun to the mown grass as will consist with its security from excessive heating. Clover should not in ordinary cases be strewn over the ground, but left in *swath* and merely turned over or kept in lap cocks until it is put together and sweated.

Flower Garden.—The borders are now gay with pinks, carnations, ranunculuses, anemones, pansies, the lily tribe, roses, and other charming flowers. Plant out asters and any other annuals that you have ready; and prick out seedlings to give them strength and form before they are finally transplanted; and plant in the borders any tender annuals that are stout enough to be removed and to remain in their new places. This is a favourite month (towards the latter end) for propagating pinks and carnations by pipings. The manner of doing this is simple. It may not be amiss, however, to state Mr. Hogg's directions as given by Mr. Loudon, and his reason for preferring piping to laying: ' the piping should be cut with a sharp pen or budding knife at the second or third joint, according to the condition of the shoot; but the shorter the better. The cut must take place horizontally close below the joint, and the sheath, or part that covers the joint, must be carefully removed or peeled off. Where the pipings are cut, and the surface of the bed made flat and level, and gently watered through a fine rose, they may be stuck in, three-quarters-of-an-inch deep, in rows not too near each other. Then let them be watered again, which will help to fix the earth close round them:. the glasses on no account are to be shut down close till they are dry, or they will inevitably fog rot and perish. Plants raised from pipings are more likely to survive the rigours of a sharp winter than layers; but still as laying is the surest mode, I would only make pipings of such shoots as appear crowded, or too short or too high up the stalk to be laid easily.' Stake and tie pinks, carnations, and all herbaceous plants that require support, in a neat manner, not causing them to look like wisps or besoms, and to have their interior stems and leaves blanched. The flower stems should fall over the bands in graceful folds. Such spaces should be preserved between the several plants so treated, that no two of them shall touch each other. Make cuttings of fuchsias, heliotropes, and such like plants.

KITCHEN GARDEN.—Much less sowing is necessary in this than in the two preceding months; and what seed is to be sown will be accelerated and perhaps assured in its growth, by steeping it previously, for a longer or shorter time, according to its kind, in soft and slightly warm water. This will be found especially useful with thick-coated seeds, such as peas, of which Knight's marrows may now be sown every fortnight. Cauliflower seed and that of Cape brocoli, which, though not a large sort is one of the most beneficial, should be sown now; the former will head in November. Celery plants, stripped carefully of suckers, should be put down, frequently watered, and always shaded from the sun until they have perfectly taken root. Sow Dale's Hybrid or the Stone turnip, if you have Swedes elsewhere: the former are excellent for the table: so also is the yellow Aberdeen. Thin and weed the beds of carrots, parsnips, onions, and if liquid manure be stored up, apply it moderately to them. The value of such liquid and of street puddle is so great, that the cottager should take advantage of every rich stream which passes near his door, and fill his tank or tub with it, or apply it to his crops immediately. He will find for his few wants abundant manure of the best quality, in the overflowings of some farmer's dunghill, of his neighbour's yards, and in the scrapings of the road, or cleansings of ditches, where the ammoniacal matter of stable-yards and cow-houses had been deposited, and disregarded in the first instance by persons who ought to have known and practised better. Apply the manuring liquid if possible in moist weather, when the functions of the plant are in the most suitable working order, and rapid evaporation will not take place, which often renders watering ineffectual or injurious. Watering in dry weather is generally followed by the hardening of the earth around the roots of the plant. Loosen it in such case.

STRAWBERRIES AND RASPBERRIES.

The months usually recommended for making new plantations of strawberries are September and October in autumn, or March in the spring. But we consider either season as disadvantageous. If planted in autumn, they often are not sufficiently rooted to stand the winter frost, if in spring the produce has to be waited for through more than a whole year; whereas if planted in July, the plants become well established before winter, and a plentiful crop of fruit may be obtained in the following summer.

The soil best suited for the strawberry is a deep rich loam; stiff clay land is considered unsuitable, but we know a garden of several acres in which the soil is cold wet clay, planted entirely with strawberries, from which the crop is most abundant, yielding ample profit to the owner. The ground should be trenched two feet deep, well supplied with manure, and divided into beds about four feet wide, with narrow pathways between them. On these beds the young roots are to be planted from twelve to eighteen inches apart, according to the size of the kind of strawberry. The roots should be chosen from those runners which grow nearest the parent plant, and which have a full central cluster of leaves, those with only one or two leaves are generally unproductive. Strawberries may also be planted in borders, at about a foot distant from each other, but the best system to pursue is the following:

1st year, July. — Prepare the beds, and plant as above directed, fixing the roots firmly in the ground, give them a good watering, and continue to do so day by day if the weather be dry, until they are well rooted; the usual rains of the end of July are generally advantageous in assisting the speedy growth of the plants, which will be well established before winter sets in. In the beginning of December spread a thick coating of rich manure around the plants, to nourish and protect them from the frost. Fork in the manure in April, make the beds neat, and cut off the runners as they advance.

2nd year, July.—Let a new bed be prepared, planted and dressed in the same manner; continue attention to No. 1 bed, which this year is in good bearing order.

3rd year, July.—Make another new bed: attend to beds Nos. 1 and 2 as before. No. 1 is now in full bearing.

4th year. — As soon as the strawberries have done bearing, dig up the plants in No. 1, trench the ground afresh, well manure, and replant. No. 2 will now be in perfection.

5th year.—Pursue the same course with bed No. 2. Thus year after year you will have a constant progress and succession, always two beds in full bearing; instead of leaving your beds to become worn out and unproductive.

By planting several varieties, and choosing different aspects, the strawberry season may be made to continue from June to the end of August. One successful cultivator digs trenches a foot deep, these he fills with stones about half their depth, upon these rich loam well manured is placed, and the strawberries planted upon it. The stones are to prevent the roots from striking deeply into the ground, in order that they may have the full benefit of the manure, and of that which is spread over the plants in winter. The plan is found to answer admirably.

Soot is a fine manure for strawberries; spread about them in April, just before they blossom, it destroys slugs, and the rains carry into the soil the saline matters which act powerfully as manure. Rabbits' or pigeons' dung mixed with short litter, forms the best winter dressing. At the beginning of the present century there were only about a dozen or twenty different kinds of strawberries, now there are hundreds of choice varieties, from which to select in forming new beds. Keen's seedling a few years ago was regarded as the best, combining fine flavour and large size with abundant bearing. This has yielded the superiority to the British Queen, which is, perhaps, the best of all. The price of the plants is yearly decreasing, in 1848 they were to be purchased for 3s. 6d. per hundred. Another new variety of splendid appearance and flavour is the Black Prince, the price is, however, yet very high, six shillings for a quarter-of-a-hundred. Many gentlemen allow their gardeners to give away the runners to their poorer neighbours, from this source, doubtless, many of our readers will endeavour to supply themselves with good kinds.

Raspberries are generally planted too late. In forming new beds it is found that when they are made in October or November, that several years elapse before they become very productive. Our plan is to plant as soon as they have done bearing, or as soon as the leaves begin to fade and curl; the canes are then as much at rest as at any period, and may be removed safely; they require plentiful watering until fully established. In the winter a good supply of manure must be put about the roots, to be dug in in spring, and the result will be a good crop of fruit the succeeding summer. Gooseberry and currant-trees should also be planted as soon as the leaves begin to fade.

PROFIT ON FOWLS.

[A correspondent residing near Liverpool, whose enterprise is well worthy of imitation, sends us the following account of his endeavours in raising fowls. We publish it for the benefit of others similarly engaged, or desirous of trying.]

'I have profited from your hints on "domestic fowls," and perhaps some of your readers would like to know my method of taking an account of the profit, arising from the sale of eggs. It is a plan which may be adopted by those who either cannot write, or those who think too much of the trouble of setting everything down on paper. I started in the beginning of the last year with ten hens and a cock, and thought I would like to know whether they were really profitable or not, and I hit on a very simple plan to ascertain this without recourse to pen and ink. In January, 1849, I lent them 2s. 6d. worth of corn, and prepared a little box to hold the money I might receive for the eggs. When I found that there was sufficient in the box to pay the debt, I of course discharged the same. Afterwards the process was simplicity itself: when corn was wanted I went to my "bank," where I took care to deposit all the egg-money. At the end of the year all that remained to be done was to count over the contents of the box, which gave at once the real profit. What I made by my ten hens was as follows:—

	£	s.	d.
Found in the box . . .	2	9	6
Present value of chickens reared	0	16	0
Eggs eaten by ourselves, say	0	5	0
Total .	£3	10	6

VARIETIES.

The Man who stayed out at Night!—A recent number of *Chambers' Journal* has an amusing sketch illustrative of the groundless imputations so often thrown upon individuals by those who judge of the characters of others solely by appearances. It is the case of a gentleman named Williams, who stays out every night till late hours, coming home only pale and haggard, when 'day-light doth appear.' Thereupon his opposite neighbour, Mrs. Pry, or Mrs. Braybrooke, touchingly laments the condition of his 'dear little wife,' condemned to pass so many tedious hours alone, whilst her brute of a husband is drinking at the tavern, gambling, or passing his time in any company but that where he should be; breakfasting at noon, and dining at night. On explanation, however, it turns out that the offender's late hours are more his misfortune than his fault—his work begins when other people's ends—in a word, *he is Editor of a Morning Paper.*

Distribution of Heat on the Earth's Surface.—The heating of the earth's surface, and of the atmosphere, by which alone the vegetable and animal world can thrive, is alone owing to the rays of the sun, which must thus be regarded as the source of all life upon our planet. Where the midday sun stands vertically above the heads of the inhabitants, and its rays strike the earth's surface at a right angle, a luxuriant vegetation is developed, if a second condition of its existence, namely, moisture, be not wanting; but where the solar rays constantly fall too obliquely to produce any marked effect, nature is chained in eternal ice, and nearly all animal and vegetable life ceases.—*Dr. John Müller on Physics and Meteorology.*

Wealth, accumulated by fair competition in honest pursuits, is the right of every man; but that which is derived from advantages which the law gives one over another, is *legalized plunder.*

Sir Walter Scott said seriously, in his autobiography, 'through every part of my literary career, I have felt pinched and hampered at my own ignorance.'

Sneaking Tyrants.—Wherever you see a person insult his inferiors, you may be assured he will creep to his superiors; and he will act the part of a bully to those who cannot resist, and a coward to those who can.

Mendicity.—Plutarch says a beggar asked alms of a Lacedæmonian, who replied—'Should I give thee anything, I should make thee a greater beggar, for he made thee one who gave to thee first.' A lady refused to relieve a beggar, but heard him say in a deep tone—'Then I must resort to my first resolution.' Thinking this allusion must be robbery or suicide, she turned back, gave him money, and asked him what he meant to have done. 'O mam,' said he, 'you are very good, I had almost resolved to have gone to work.'—*Duncan's Essays and Miscellanea.*

Hints to Scolding Wives.—'And I dare say you have scolded your wife very often, Newman,' said I once. Old Newman looked down, and his wife took up the reply. 'Never to signify—and if he has I deserved it.' 'And I dare say, if the truth was told, you have scolded him quite as often.' 'Nay,' said the old woman, with a beauty of kindness which the world cannot excel, 'how can a wife scold her good man who has been working for her and her little ones all the day? It may be a man is peevish at times, for it is he who bears the crosses of the world; but who should make him forget them but his own wife? And she had best for her own sake,—for nobody can scold much when the scolding is all on one side.'—*Bulwer.*

National Character.—It has been said that an Irishman is at peace only when he is in a quarrel; a Scotsman is at home only when he is abroad; an Englishman is contented only when finding fault with something or somebody; and let us add that a captious, busy, blustering, impetuous American is at the height of felicity, only while he is in all these tumultuous conditions at the same time.—*Magoon's Proverbs.*

Weakness.—A person pointed out a man who had a profusion of rings on his fingers to a cooper. 'Ah, master,' said the artisan, 'it's a sure sign of weakness when so many hoops are used.'

The Corner.

Lawful Struggles.—When we feel any pressures of distress, we are not to conclude that we can only obey the will of heaven by languishing under it, any more than when we perceive the pain of thirst, we are to imagine that water is prohibited. Of misfortune, it never can be certainly known whether, as proceeding from the hand of God, it is an act of favour or of punishment: but since all the ordinary dispensations of Providence are to be interpreted according to the general analogy of things, we may conclude that we have a right to remove one inconvenience as well as another; that we are only to take care lest we purchase ease with guilt; and that our Maker's purpose, whether of reward or severity, will be answered by the labours which he lays us under the necessity of performing. —*Johnson.*

A CHAPTER ABOUT SUGAR.

PART I.

Europe is indebted to the East for many commodities which tend greatly to the well-being of its population, and among these scarcely any will be found of more benefit and value than sugar. This useful article was known and cultivated in China two thousand years before the inhabitants of our part of the world became acquainted with it. The records of the earlier nations of antiquity contain no notice of it; but the "sweet calamus" and "sweet cane" mentioned in the Old Testament are supposed to mean the sugar cane; Jeremiah speaks of "the sweet cane from a far country," which would seem to indicate that the plant itself then formed an article of commerce. Our word sugar is said to be derived from the Hebrew *Sachar*, which signifies drunkenness, probably in reference to some intoxicating juice that may have been made from it. The Greek physicians describe it as a kind of honey found in reeds, and in some instances named it "Indian salt," beneficial in bowel complaints, and diseases of the eye. Pliny states that *sakkaron* or sugar was useful as physic, and good to be held in the mouth during fevers; other writers call it "honey of canes," or, "honey made by the hands of men." Alexander's expedition to India helped to make the article better known; Nearchus the admiral in his account of the productions of the country, has "the reed that yields honey without bees." In the thirteenth century sugar became known in Arabia, and numerous vessels were employed in transporting the sweet product. For a time the Indians kept the preparation of it a secret, and the traders to their ports were left undisturbed in their fanciful notions that it fell upon the reeds as a rain of dust, or exuded from them as gum.

The Crusaders were another means of introducing sugar to Europe; Albert Agnensis, one of the historians of those valorous enterprises, relates that, "the Crusaders found sweet honeyed reeds, in great quantity, in the meadows about Tripoli, in Syria, which reeds were called *Zucra*. These the people (the Crusaders' army) sucked, and were much pleased with the sweet taste of them, with which they could scarcely be satisfied. This plant is cultivated with great labour of the husbandmen every year. At the time of harvest they bruise it when ripe in mortars, and set by the strained juice in vessels, till it is concreted in form of snow, or of white salt. This, when scraped, they mix with bread, or rub it with water, and take it as pottage; and it is to them more wholesome and pleasing than the honey of bees. The people who were engaged in the sieges of Albaria, Marra, and Archas, and suffered dreadful hunger, were much refreshed hereby." He records also that some of the soldiers captured eleven camels laden with sugar, thus shewing that it had become an important article of trade.

The celebrated Venetian traveller, Marco Polo, who visited China and India, about 1260, may be regarded as among the first to convey correct information on the subject; this led to a further increase and extension of the trade which spread into several parts of Africa. In 1300, sugar was cultivated in the islands of the Mediterranean; there are still plantations of it in Sicily, and in Spain and Portugal. From these countries the cane was carried to Madeira, and to the West Indies and America. The earliest and most abundant supplies came from St. Domingo or Hayti, as it is now called; so great indeed was the quantity imported into Spain from this island, that the emperor Charles V. built the magnificent palaces of Toledo and Madrid with the port dues from that one source alone. The cultivation next extended to the island of St. Thomas, to Barbados, Jamaica, and the Brazils. When England took Jamaica from the Spaniards in 1656, there were but three plantations on the island, these were however soon improved and the number increased. The growers in Barbados were most successful in competing with the Portuguese, they produced a better quality of sugar at lower cost. In 1676 there were not fewer than 600 vessels, of 150 tons each, employed in the Barbados sugar-trade.

Sugar was first used in England for medicinal purposes, and at feasts; Chaucer mentions it as *sugre*. Towards the end of the 16th century the supply was augmented by large quantities imported from

Portugal; and from this beginning has grown up a trade which now reaches to the four quarters of the globe, and brings into this country nearly eight hundred millions of pounds of sugar every year, for the use and benefit of its numerous population.

With this brief sketch of the history of sugar, we now proceed to notice the manner of its growth and manufacture. The *saccharum officinarum*, or sugar-cane, grows from six to twenty feet long, according to the soil and climate in which it may be produced; the stems vary in size, some being less than one inch, and others more than two inches in diameter; some of the Brazil canes have eighty joints, others from twenty to forty, and others again not more than nine or ten. They thrive best in a moist soil, as the roots are numerous: there are two sets of sap vessels, the one common to the whole plant, the other peculiar to each knot or joint. "The knots of the canes are not simple enlargements, as in the greater part of reeds, and the gramineous family of plants. They are rings, from an eighth to a quarter of an inch wide. Four or five rows of semi-transparent points go round their circumference. A circular semi-transparent line very perceptibly divides the outer from the inner joint. At the upper part of this there is a slight circular hollow, called the neck, which is terminated by the leaf." The inner joint is "entirely subordinate to the outer one, both in its development and growth. It is destined to perform a most important function; in it the juice, after having undergone various modifications, arrives at the state of its essential salt. There is on every joint a bud, which encloses the germ of a new cane." The stem is at first white and tender, then changes to green and yellow and becomes hard. The leaves grow in such a way as to embrace the cane very closely, and thus prevent the entrance of insects or of rain, either of which would be very injurious. "The first joint requires four or five months for its entire growth, and during this time, fifteen or twenty joints spring from it in succession, and the same progression continues, as, by degrees, each joint arrives at the period of its growth, which is ascertained by the decay of its leaf: this is the period of its maturation. When the leaves of the first two or three joints which appear out of the earth have died away, there are then about twelve or fifteen leaves at top, disposed in the form of a fan." It is then full grown. A field of canes when in arrow or full blossom is described "as one of the most beautiful productions that the pen or pencil can possibly describe. It is, when ripe, of a bright and golden yellow; and where obvious to the sun, is in most parts very beautifully streaked with red. The top is of a darkish green; but the more dry it becomes it assumes a russet yellow colour, with long and narrow leaves hanging down; from the centre of which shoots up an arrow, like a silver wand, from two to six feet in height, and from the summit of which grows out a plume of white feathers, which are delicately fringed with lilac dye, and indeed is, in its appearance, not much unlike the tuft that adorns this particular and elegant tree."

Canes are not propagated from seeds, but from cuttings, and suckers of the roots or stoles: the produce of the latter are called *rattoons.* The land is prepared by making holes eight or twelve inches deep, two feet apart, and in rows three feet distant from each other. The earth is thrown up round each hole, manure is put in, and on this two or three cuttings are laid, and covered with an inch or two of mould. Roots soon shoot forth, and in about fourteen days the young sprouts are a few inches in height: some of the earth is then put into the hole, and again as the plants grow, until at the end of five months the holes are filled. After this great pains must be taken to hoe out all weeds and cut away off-shoots. From August to November is the general planting season, though some cultivators prefer other months. The custom is to raise new plants every year, on different portions of the estate, and to keep up an abundant growth from the old stoles; the rattoons do not look so handsome as the new canes, but they yield a richer and purer juice, which can be converted into sugar with much less trouble than the other. A carefully managed plantation will give valuable crops for twenty years without renewing. Very great care and watchfulness are necessary to insure good produce, for the canes have many enemies: an insect called the *blast,* which settles on them in millions, and kills them by eating their way to the inside; besides these, worms called borers, rats, and ants are very destructive. "Some years ago white ants appeared in such incalculable numbers in Martinique, that the culture of the sugar-cane was menaced with total destruction, neither wind nor rain stopped their ravages, when, happily a hurricane caused their sudden and entire disappearance." The extirpation of these pests is a constant object with the planters.

When the crop is ready the canes are cut as close to the roots as possible, the juice being richest at the lowest end. Several inches of the top are cut off and thrown aside for cattle-feed, as the flavour of the juice in those portions would injure the rest; the damaged canes are rejected for the same reason. They are then tied in bundles and conveyed to the mills, where grooved iron rollers are made to rotate by the power of cattle, wind, water, or steam; some are constructed to work either by wind or cattle. The canes are passed twice between these rollers; all the juice is thus pressed out; it is of a grayish brown colour, containing certain waste matters, which are separated by boiling. In some instances the mill is built on a height, so that the juice shall run of itself down to the boiling-house, placed a little lower, and from this again to the still-house; this is a plan which saves much labour. The utmost cleanliness is necessary; all the channels through which the sugar flows have to be scrubbed every day while the work lasts, and sprinkled with lime, to purify it from the bad taste of such juice as may have collected within them during its passage. "When the work of the boiling house is about to commence a busy and cheerful scene ensues. Negroes are employed in cleaning and washing out the coppers, preparing the quick-lime, and making lime water. The mill is put about, and as soon as sufficient canes are expressed to fill a receiver with juice, it is made to flow through a channel, lined with lead, into one of the clarifiers, and a fire being lighted under this, the alkali, or *temper*, is stirred into the juice; it is commonly made of lime mixed with cane juice, to the consistence of cream." Negroes are stationed at the furnace to regulate the fire, according to the directions of the head boiler. The operation of boiling indeed is one requiring the utmost skill and delicacy, but too often it is carelessly performed. The crushed canes are called *trash*, and are used for manure, and as fuel, when dried; they are stowed away in large buildings erected for the purpose. The juice as it comes from the mill flows into a large trench, and must be boiled immediately, for if it stand but a short time fermentation takes place and the whole is spoiled.

In this first heating the juice is not boiled, but kept two degrees below the boiling point until the scum which rises to the surface is seen to crack; it is then drawn off to the evaporating copper, where it is boiled rapidly and scummed, and becomes fine and thick. Another boiling intensely fierce then takes place in a third copper, after which the whole is poured into coolers, where the sugar gradually begins to crystallize; the slower the cooling the coarser is the grain of the sugar, and the more easily can it be cleansed. After remaining a sufficient time in the coolers the sugar is "potted," or, in other words put into hogsheads, which are placed in the curing-house. These huge casks have holes pierced in their bottoms to allow the molasses, a kind of thin treacle, to drain away. When the draining is complete the sugar is ready for exportation. The thick treacle is that which drains from the sugar in moulds.

The sugar here described is known as *Muscovado*, or raw sugar; there is another kind called Lisbon, or *clayed* sugar, which is more used on the Continent than in this country; it is produced chiefly in Brazil, Cuba, and some of the French colonies. This sugar, after boiling, instead of being poured into coolers, is laded into large conical pans, about two feet in height and more than a foot in diameter. These pans when filled are ranged in the curing house, the small end, which has an orifice to admit of draining, downwards. Over the broad end, or base of the cone, which is uppermost, a coat of thin clay is poured; this acts as a sponge, the water contained in it trickles slowly downwards, cleansing the sugar as it descends, and falls into a trough placed beneath. As the clay dries a second and third layer is put on as may be necessary, and after the last is off, the pans are let to stand for twenty days longer, when they are carried to the stove-house and heated for a fortnight to evaporate the water which may yet remain in the sugar. This is next crushed or pulverized, and pressed into hogsheads for exportation. Sometimes the loaf when dried is broken into three portions ; the large end is called *white*, the middle *yellow*, and the smallest *brown*, and these lumps, as they are termed, are packed in boxes for the European market: many of those brought from Brazil contain three-quarters of a ton. In all cases the drainings are either boiled over again or sent to the still-house.

THE PET FAWN.

A TALE.

A FARMER of the name of Gordon, residing in the south of Scotland, had two sons—the elder, Sandy, had gone abroad, and not been heard of for some years ; the younger, Lewis, was the father of our heroine Janet.

The farmer died, and it was then discovered that his affairs were in confusion, and that he had made no provision for Lewis; but as Sandy did not appear, Lewis took possession of every thing in trust for him, and by unwearied care and judicious management, had brought the farm and garden into the highest state of cultivation, and paid every debt at the period of the opening of our story.

One quarter-day, he was going as usual to his landlord, Sir Adam McLeod with a well-stocked purse to pay his rent, his dog followed him, and unfortunately, as he then thought, encountered a herd of deer in crossing the park, and scattering them in all directions, seized upon a fawn, which was too young and feeble to escape, and inflicted upon the tender creature a severe wound, before the farmer could come to its assistance.

Sir Adam McLeod was looking out of a window, and saw what had happened. He was, at first, very angry, but the farmer very earnestly apologised for his carelessness in not having locked up the dog before he left home. He offered to pay for the fawn, saying he would carry it home, and his little lassie would take such care of it that it might recover. Sir Adam was too proud to receive money for the fawn, which he thought was dying, but told the farmer he might take it away if he liked.

The farmer, in much concern, dressed and bound the wound, and laid the timid animal in a safe place while he settled his account with his landlord. He then carried the creature home, and calling his daughter Janet, a little girl twelve years old, gave it into her care.

Janet's anxiety at the sight of the bleeding fawn was visible in her countenance. Pity and surprise at having such a new and loveable object placed under her especial care, and perhaps some notion that, if it recovered, it might be given to her as a constant pet, gave a charming lustre to her eyes, and a sweet flush to her cheeks. Her little hands and feet were soon in motion, and in a few moments the stricken fawn was relieved by such surgical care as Janet could supply. It soon recovered, and became the constant companion of its little mistress out of doors.

The daughter of Sir Adam and Lady McLeod was, like Janet, an only child, and as only children so often are, a completely spoiled pet. A fit of illness had left a languor and heaviness of spirits, which no efforts of her fond parents could dissipate : at length Dr. Blair suggested that a companion of the same age who would tempt her to play, take exercise, and shake off her dulness, might serve better than drugs, towards a cure.

'I venture to recommend your having Farmer Gordon's little girl every day for some hours, to play with Miss Alice,' said the physician.

'Oh, do, mama, pray do,' said Alice, 'I am quite tired of being with old people only.' A speech which certainly did not argue much in favour of her affection for her parents, to whom *she* was every thing.

Lady McLeod and Sir Adam readily assented to this advice, and Sir Adam went himself to speak to his tenant on the subject. Mr. and Mrs. Gordon were flattered that their child was selected as a companion for the young heiress. Janet was accordingly sent every day to the Manor house, and succeeded in amusing the young and capricious invalid until the novelty of this plan wore off; then she found it impossible to please her without finding out some new source of excitement. One day happening to mention her pet fawn, and the manner in which it would follow her about, lick her hand, and frisk and bound away, and then return, she so roused the curiosity of Miss Alice to see the animal, that Janet was made to promise to bring it with her the following day.

Accordingly the next morning Janet and her fawn appeared together, and the latter played all its little tricks on the lawn before the house, to the great amusement of Alice. When at the usual hour of her departure, Janet called her pet to follow her home, the young lady declared that it should remain with her.

'My godfather,' said she, 'gave me five pounds yesterday to buy some toys, but I would rather have this pretty fawn than any thing else. I will give the money to you for the fawn.'

'I cannot part with my fawn,' replied Janet, 'I do not want money.'

Alice stormed with passion, screamed, and made such a noise, that Lady McLeod hearing it, came to inquire into the cause. When she heard that Janet had refused to gratify her daughter, she ordered her to leave the place, and never to appear there again.

'My dear love,' she said to Alice, 'your father will buy another fawn for you.'

'But it will not be tame like this one, or play about as this does. I shall cry myself sick,' said this victim of mistaken indulgence.

Janet in the mean time had slunk away and gained the road, the fawn trotting by her side. She overtook a respectable neighbour, Mrs. Seaton, who appeared to be in the greatest distress. 'Have you been at the hall, Mrs. Seaton,' said the child, 'have they made you cry as well as me.'

'Oh, Janet,' replied Mrs. Seaton, 'what is to become of me. My son George has enlisted. He has long worked as gardener with Sir Adam McLeod, to whom I have just been, to entreat of him to advance money to buy my son's discharge from the clutch of the sergeant, who has offered to let him off for five pounds, but Sir Adam has refused, and for want of five pounds, I shall lose my only comfort.'

Oh! thought Janet, I must not let this poor woman die of grief for the sake of keeping my fawn. 'Will you wait for me?' she said, turning to Mrs. Seaton, 'I shall return in a few minutes.'

She ran back to the lawn more rapidly than she had left it, and found Alice still there, sitting upon the ground, and sobbing as if her heart would break.

'Forgive me, Miss Alice,' said Janet, 'for refusing you before. I will give my fawn for five pounds.'

'I am glad that you have come to your senses,' said Lady McLeod haughtily.

She took out her purse, threw down five sovereigns to Janet, and told Alice to put up her money to buy the toys her godfather wished her to have.

When Lady McLeod thus gratified the wish of her daughter to possess the fawn, she little thought of the consequences that would follow; and Alice did not expect that the fawn would not transfer its playful affections to her as its new mistress. She never could coax it to like her as it had liked Janet, and instead of playing with her, the animal manifested its dislike to her, and began to resist her petty tyrannies, ceasing altogether to be with her the playful creature, it had been under the tender treatment of Janet. In the meantime its antlers sprouted, and its previous gentleness wore away.

One day, as the fawn resisted the caresses of the young lady, she struck it with much severity. The fawn attacked her in return, and injured her so severely, that she became lame for life. The fawn was shot by the orders of Lady McLeod, who laid all the blame of this occurrence, partly upon poor innocent Janet, and partly upon Dr. Blair, who had introduced her to Alice.

We must now return to Janet. As soon as she received the money, she hastened back to Mrs. Seaton, and with trembling eagerness put it into her hand, saying, 'Dear Mrs. Seaton, go at once, and release George.'

'How did you get the money child,' inquired Mrs. Seaton, 'I fear I could not repay it for a long time, and your father and mother might be angry with you for giving it away.'

'It is my own money,' said Janet, 'I got it from Miss Alice for my fawn.'

'And you have sold that creature which you were so fond of, which has been your pet so long to enable me to free my son?' Mrs. Seaton was overpowered by her feelings for some time, but, after a silence, added 'Janet, my darling girl, I will take your money, though I can now only give you in return, an old woman's blessing. Mark my words, it will rest upon you, you have made the widow's heart leap with joy:' and so they parted.

George Seaton, who was the object of this deed of generosity performed by Farmer Gordon's youthful daughter, was a fine lad of twenty years of age. He had been the pride of his mother's heart; but taking offence at her objections to his acquaintance with Sally Bell, a girl of indifferent character, he left his home in anger, and meeting Sally and her brother while his feelings were so excited, he was persuaded by them to go and see a recruiting party in the neighbouring town. The sergeant threw a keen glance on the fine manly form of George Seaton, and wishing to secure him as a recruit, he invited him and his companions into a public house; plied George with liquor, and fixing a cockade of different coloured ribbons on his hat, told him he now belonged to the Queen. He went through all the forms usual upon such crimping occasions, and had George completely in his power; he was now a recruit of the regiment. For some time the party were very merry, and as drink began to circulate, George saw with a stupid sort of surprise and sullen anger, that Sally Bell, upon whose account he had grieved his mother, was making very unbecoming advances to the sergeant, or at least, permitting him to use familiarities with her, which showed that her attachment to George was not to be depended upon.

This was too much: jealousy and resentment sobered George, and caused him to pass a night of agony and remorse. His mother hung upon his neck the next day, and the sight of her anguish was terrible to him, but he was bound to follow the fortunes of the regiment, which was about to embark for India. One way, and one only was open for his release: if he could obtain a substitute, the sergeant would let him off; he could procure one for five pounds, but neither he, nor his mother, had this sum in their possession. It was her anxiety to effect this arrangement, which caused the widow to apply to Sir Adam McLeod.

We may judge of George's joy, though mingled with shame and vexation, upon his mother's return with the money which Janet had given to her. He might again be free, again become her comfort and support. A substitute was procured, and George was most willing to do anything in his power to atone for his past folly.

Mrs. Seaton had come from "Merry England," to Scotland, and as her husband, who had induced her to do so, was dead, she longed to return to her native country. Full of this idea, she took courage to address herself to a Mr. Sinclair, who lived in her neighbourhood, in hopes that he might aid her in leaving the place from which she was anxious to remove George, lest Sally Bell might again obtain influence over him. Mr. Sinclair kindly recommended George to a gentleman, who resided in Carlisle, and he being in want of an assistant gardener, was glad to engage the services of young Seaton. To Mrs. Seaton's great delight, she and her son soon went over the border, and George became respectably settled in Carlisle, in Mr. Courtenay's service.

We ought to have mentioned before, that in relating her case to Mr. Sinclair, Mrs. Seaton had told him that she had obtained money to procure a substitute for George, by the generosity of Janet Gordon, in selling her pet fawn.

'Dear little soul!' continued Mrs. Seaton, 'she is now in trouble herself; it was only yesterday that her uncle, Sandy Gordon, returned home: he has given up some business in which he did not succeed abroad, and though Janet's father has so much improved the farm he held in trust for his brother, Sandy does not appear inclined to do any thing for him in return. He says he has a large family coming after him, and expects that his brother will give up the house and land to him as soon as possible. Lewis Gordon has applied to Sir Adam McLeod for another farm, but as he has no capital to begin with, he has been refused.'

'I have always heard an excellent character of Farmer Gordon,' said Mr. Sinclair, 'such a man must not be crushed, I myself will give him a farm, and assist him in stocking it, and as to his amiable child Janet, I shall take her into my house, she can make herself useful and attend upon my little girls.'

Our readers will now perceive how much Janet had already gained by the sacrifice of her fawn, it was that good deed which had caused Mrs. Seaton to speak so warmly in her praise to Mr. Sinclair, who now proved such a friend, "in need," to her parents and herself.

Mr. Sinclair's eldest daughter married, and Janet accompanied her to Carlisle. There she met George Seaton, who could scarcely believe that she was the little girl he had known some half dozen years before, and to whom he was indebted for his present independence. He soon became sincerely attached to her, and asked her to complete the happiness which she had begun, by becoming his wife. Learning that his character was unimpeachable, and knowing he was now head gardener in Mr. Courtenay's establishment, she consented to his wishes. It need hardly be added that the mother and daughter-in-law lived in great harmony together, and time proved that Janet had gained a good husband by the sacrifice of her Pet Fawn.

H. M. H.

HOME EDUCATION.

PART VI.—INTELLECTUAL TRAINING.

As regards the choice of suitable books for children. To begin with young children, we must say a word or two about picture books. We have known some judicious and thoughtful parents to have a strong objection to putting picture books, as such, into the hands of children. Their argument, we believe, is that books ought not to be considered in the light of playthings or toys. Thus far we agree with them ; but a child, though unable to read, may receive that kind of intellectual enjoyment from the forms depicted in an engraving or wood-cut, and the bright colours with which it is embellished, which puts the picture in a rank far above that of a mere plaything. Notwithstanding, therefore, our high respect for those who differ from us, we hold it to be a somewhat important part of home education, to teach children, even in infancy, some good and useful lessons through the medium of picture books. With regard to books in general for children, we doubt the wisdom or propriety of being exceedingly restrictive in their choice. There is however, a knowledge which "causeth to err:" and no parent who cares for the best interest of his children would put into their hands a single page containing such knowledge as this. It is painful to reflect that the printing press, powerful as it is for good, is often perverted from its right design, and made an instrument for evil. Hundreds of thousands of cheap publications are issuing weekly from it, whose pages are filled with profanity, and whose tendency is to lead men from the paths of honour and virtue. For your children's sake, as well as for your own, we pray you reader not to admit into your house such infamous trash, in the form of papers and books, which bear on every page "the broad stamp of vice, which unmistakeably marks them as the devil's own." There are other sorts of books, too, which had better, to say the least of them, be kept out of our children's reach. "With respect to sentimental stories, and books of mere entertainment, we must remark," says Miss Edgeworth, "that they should be sparingly used, especially in the education of girls. This species of reading cultivates what is called the heart, prematurely ; lowers the tone of the mind, and induces indifference for those common pleasures and occupations, which, however trivial in themselves, constitute by far the greatest portion of our daily happiness. Stories are the novels of childhood. We know from common experience, the effects which are produced upon the female mind by immoderate novel reading. To those who acquire this taste, every object becomes disgusting which is not in an attitude for poetic painting. A species of moral picturesque is sought for in every scene of life, and this is not always compatible with sound sense, or with simple reality."

But Miss Edgeworth was herself one of the most successful writers of stories for children, and we are not to suppose that she condemned what she practised. No such thing. Her theory and her practice were consistent with each other. Her stories for children are admirable pictures of common every day life, and have a moral aim which render them most valuable aids in home education. Sorry, indeed, should we be for children's story books to be banished from the realms of print. Nevertheless, we would venture to advise a parent not to trust a book of this class with either boy or girl, without first becoming acquainted with its contents. What lesson or lessons are intended to be taught by it? Are its scenes and events natural or improbable, or impossible? Is there any nonsense in it—any love passage—any immorality of tone, expression, or tendency? These, and other questions ought to receive a satisfactory reply, before the book can be pronounced fit for the perusal of a child.

The writer just quoted, recommends that every book put into the hands of a child, should first undergo a strict examination, and every objectionable passage in it obliterated. "We are acquainted with a mother," she writes, "who has never trusted any book to her children without having first examined it herself with the most scrupulous attention; and her care has been repaid with that success in education, which such care can alone secure. We have several books before us marked by her pencil, and volumes which, having undergone some necessary operations by her scissors, would, in their mutilated state, shock the sensibility of a nice librarian. But shall the education of a family be sacrificed to the beauty of a page, or even to the binding of a book? Few books can be safely given to children without the previous use of the pen, the pencil, and the scissors." We scarcely know whether to like or to dislike this advice. In some respects it is good,—in others we doubt its wisdom. We fear that with nine children out of ten, the blotting or cutting out parts of their books would render them excessively curious to know what those passages could have in them so very mischievous as that they must not be read. Perhaps, however, this plan was more necessary fifty years ago, when the advice was written, and when good books for children were exceedingly scarce, than in the present day, when books of a very superior order for this class of readers confessedly abound. It would be better, we believe, for parents to withhold entirely such books—story books especially, as they think contain objectionable sentiments, rather than resort to the doubtful expedient of blotting or cutting. Nevertheless, as there may be here and there, in the most useful book, parts with which a parent cannot agree, it is a good plan to underline those parts with a pen, and write in the margin, or at the bottom of the page the reason for doing so.

We have said that we would be sorry to banish story books of the right sort from the libraries of our children; but we should be more sorry were their powers of reading entirely given up to this sort of composition. The intellectual training of a child will fall very short of what it should be, when this is the case. His mind can never become vigorous, nor well-informed, nor fitted for the every day business of life, nor prepared for future advancement, whose whole, or even favourite reading is that of story-books, or any other books whose principal aim is entertainment, and whose great use is that of affording a pleasant mental relaxation.

There are a multitude of subjects in which it is highly desirable the minds of the young should be instructed. There is no reason that the children of artizans and other "working men" should not be well taught in history—especially in the history of their own country:—there are many strong reasons why they should. The difficulty in this case is, and we acknowledge it to be a great and perplexing one, that most histories, including those written for the young, contain much that is erroneous and injurious, and are written in a spirit too little in accordance with sound principles of social economy. We are inclined to think that the best way to instruct children in history is in the way of family reading, of which more hereafter. The parent then has the opportunity of correcting what he deems to be wrong in sentiment, and of inculcating right and wholesome notions. Great would be the benefit to society, as well as to the children themselves, were intelligent parents to adopt this course. "The greater part of the heart-burnings of the working classes proceed from their utter ignorance of the structure of society, and the principle of social happiness. They believe that everything is to be done by a government, and nothing by themselves. They know not how much their own powers of industry and self-control influence their own condition, and that of all the community. They have no means of comparing their own actual condition, bad as it may be, with the worse condition of the past generation, and the still worse condition of men less advanced in civilization. They are told by the ignorant, or the factious, that they live in a time of unexampled distress, and that the labouring man is worse off than at any previous period of history. How can they arrive at the rejection of these monstrous fallacies, unless they have a considerable share of accurate knowledge—knowledge indeed which the rich want as much as themselves!"*

Every little helps, however, and a thinking parent cannot attentively read with his children the history of past times without drawing some correct and useful conclusions,—enriching his own mind and advancing their intellectual training.

It was our intention to bring these remarks on this subject to a close in this paper, but we have not been able. Our limits are already reached, and we have more yet to say on the choice of books—something on family reading—something on conversation—something on writing. We trust, therefore, that our past and present articles on the most important topic of Home Education have not yet quite exhausted the attention of our readers.

AGE AND YOUTH.

I LOVE to look on a scene like this,
Of wild and careless play,
And persuade myself that I'm not old,
And my locks are not yet gray;
For it stirs the blood in an old man's heart,
And it makes his pulses fly,
To catch the thrill of a happy voice,
And the light of a pleasant eye.

I have walked the world for four-score years,
And they say that I am old;
And my heart is ripe for the reaper Death,
And my years are well nigh told.
It is very true—it is very true—
I'm old, and "I bide my time"—
But my heart will leap at a scene like this,
And I half renew my prime.

Play on! play on! I am with you there,
In the midst of your merry ring;
I can feel the thrill of the daring jump,
And the rush of the breathless swing.
I hide with you in the fragrant hay,
And I whoop the smothered call;
And my feet slip up on the seedy floor,
And I care not for the fall.

I am willing to die when my time shall come,
And I shall be glad to go,
For the world at best is a weary place,
And my pulse is beating slow;
But the grave is dark, and the heart will fail
In treading its gloomy way;
And it wiles my heart from its dreariness,
To see the young so gay.

WILLIS.

RECIPES,

AND ANSWERS TO INQUIRERS.

Maccaroni and Vermicelli are commonly used by the peasantry in Naples, and indeed throughout Italy, so much so, that it is a common expression when it is intended to describe a state of extreme destitution, to speak of the subject as "not having so much as a bowl of maccaroni." The preparation is very simple. The ingredients are merely fine wheaten flour and water, of the latter the smallest quantity that will suffice to make the former adhere in an extremely stiff paste. As this would be too hard to knead with the hand in any considerable quantity, a mechanical apparatus is employed. The paste being submitted to the action of a very powerful lever, worked by two men, soon becomes thoroughly smooth and well mingled. It is then pressed through holes pierced in the cast-iron bottom of a round vessel, which vessel is placed at some distance above a stove or hot plate on which the maccaroni falling is partially baked. As the quantity increases and descends it is drawn away, and hung on rods placed across the room, where, in a few days it dries fit for use. The size of the article is of course regulated by that of the holes through which it is forced. Vermicelli is not thicker than a coarse thread or fine twine. There are three sizes of maccaroni, the largest of which is as large as a swan quill. It is also sometimes made in thin sheets, afterwards cut in strips, and so dried, this is called ribbon maccaroni.

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* Quarterly Journal of Education.

In the preparation of vermicelli, the paste is sometimes enriched by the addition of grated cheese, yolks of eggs, and fine sugar and saffron. When these are used, the quantity of water is proportionably reduced.

The most esteemed vermicelli is made from the heart of a kind of Italian wheat, called *grano duro*, or hard grain. This kind of wheat remains in granules like very coarse sand. It resists the action of the millstones, which are said to be coarse, blunt, and not set very close. The article in fact is very coarsely ground. It is called semolina or soujee—the finest part of that sifted from the whole is called semoletta. All these articles are sold at the Italian warehouses. With the exception of the last mentioned (semolina,) which may be regarded as essentially of Italian origin, there seems no reason whatever why they should not be equally well manufactured in England, and from British produce; indeed, there is, or was in White's Row, Spitalfields, an establishment for the preparation of maccaroni and vermicelli; but considering that the articles are very wholesome and nutritious, and might be produced at a very cheap rate, it is desirable that they should be rendered more generally accessible as common food. Hitherto, the price at which they have been sold as imported goods, has chiefly confined them as articles of luxury to the tables of the comparatively rich. There is no reason why they might not be as freely used by the working-classes in England, as by the poor in Genoa or Naples. The public attention has recently been called to the subject, and it is likely that in course of time, no town will be without a manufacturer of maccaroni. The trade would very well combine with that of a baker or confectioner. The preparation on a small scale might be carried on at home without any very expensive apparatus. For kneading the paste, a common lard-beater, or even a rolling-pin might suffice. Most people have an ironing stove or side oven, or a hot plate for cooking, the top of which would serve for the partial baking. The only thing required expressly for the purpose would be that through which the paste is forced. This might be either of iron or of stone ware, of the same kind as that of which filters are made. Those who make filters, could easily contrive the article required for making maccaroni. A cylindrical box—the bottom perforated with holes, and a detached sort of lid exactly to fit the inside of the box, with the means of pressing it down closely, either by piston or screw; this concern to be temporarily, yet firmly fixed at a suitable height above the oven. A little experience would give the art of regulating the heat, so as to produce the effect desired, that of drying, without discolouring the article, and without making it brittle. The subsequent drying might be managed on a bacon rack, or on wire rods suspended from the ceiling of a dry and airy room; if one in which a good fire is kept, all the better. So much for the cheap production of the article—we proceed to the various methods of preparing them for the table; these may be classified under the heads of Soup, Savoury and Sweet—

1. Soup.—The "stock" for these soups is generally white, that is, made from veal, fowl, or turkey, rather than from beef or mutton—that, however, is a mere matter of appearance. Where economy is an object, the following stock will be found as good as need be desired. The liquor in which a knuckle of veal, two or three fowls, or a leg of mutton has been boiled, or two of these in succession; or even a leg of pork if not too salt. In this liquor boil down little trimming bits of raw meat of any kind—the heads and feet of poultry nicely cleaned, and bones of the same as they come from the table. The bones of veal give great richness to soup. When the bones are become white and dry, strain off the liquor—remove from the top all fat and scum, pour it steadily into the vessel in which the soup is to be boiled, carefully avoiding the sediment. When it boils, put in the maccaroni; one pound will be sufficient for three quarts or a gallon of soup; if the liquor is quite fresh, add a table-spoonful of salt; let it boil gently till the maccaroni is swollen to its full size, and becomes tender, but has not begun to dissolve; this will require about a quarter of an hour. In this state take out half the maccaroni; let the rest continue boiling till it is dissolved, and has partly thickened the soup; it may then be strained, but this is scarcely necessary. Now add to the boiling soup the following ingredients:—A pint and a-half of cream, or a quart of rich new milk, boiling hot; the maccaroni first taken out, a half-pound of rich cheese

grated or scraped, a French roll, cut up in small bits ; a little nutmeg or mace ; carefully stir the whole one way, till it becomes thoroughly mixed and quite hot, but do not suffer it to boil. A more simple maccaroni soup, and one more wholesome, and especially more proper for invalids and young children, may be made thus:—To two quarts of good broth of any kind, in a boiling state, add half a pound of best maccaroni: let it boil gently a quarter of an hour or twenty minutes ; grated cheese and cold butter, or very rich melted butter to be set on the table as sauce for those who like them.

Vermicelli requires about five minutes boiling, a third part of a pound is sufficient to thicken two quarts of soup ; no cheese is used, but cream is a great improvement, added as above ; season moderately with salt and mace, or nutmeg or cayenne. If cream cannot be had, the yolks of three or four eggs will answer the purpose: they should be very finely beaten—then stir to them a few spoonfuls of the boiling soup ; when thoroughly well mixed, return it to the whole, and stir one way till the whole thickens, but do not suffer it to boil after the eggs are added.

2. Savoury.—1. Good broth and milk in equal parts ; to each pint allow a quarter of a pound of maccaroni, which add to the liquor when in a boiling state, let it boil gently a quarter of an hour, or at most twenty minutes, then add of rich cheese grated, three ounces, a tea-spoonful of salt, and a grate of nutmeg, or a few grains of cayenne. Mix the whole thoroughly—put it in a deep dish buttered—strew over the top a layer of bread crumbs, among which put little bits of butter, amounting to half the weight of bread crumbs. Lightly brown the whole in an American oven, or by means of a salamander. 2. Simmer the maccaroni as above ; when sufficiently tender, put it in a buttered dish without the liquor ; for the above quantity allow the yolks of two eggs, finely beaten to two table-spoonfuls of cream—gradually stir to this the boiling liquor, which will be not much more than an equal quantity. When well mixed, pour it over the maccaroni, and above that, grate rich cheese, and half as much butter ; brown as above. 3. Half a-pound of cheese grated or scraped fine : part Cheshire and part Gloucester is generally preferred ; fresh butter, a quarter of a-pound ; four eggs, the whites and yolks beaten separately ; the crumb of a French roll steeped in boiling cream, or rich milk till quite tender ; well mix all these ingredients. Meanwhile, have ready half a-pound of maccaroni, simmered in water with a table-spoonful of salt—drain it dry —put it in a dish—cover it with the above paste, and brown. The same mixture may be baked in small saucers, tin patter-pans, or trays of stiff white paper. 4. Timball of maccaroni. This is a sort of pudding prepared from the same ingredients as the foregoing, with the addition of ham and fowl, or sweetbreads, minced fine, and either mixed with the whole or placed in the middle—thus: maccaroni half a-pound —simmer and drain as in last article ; four whole eggs well beaten, half a pint of thick cream (if the latter cannot be had, allow five eggs instead of four, and a table-spoonful of arrow-root, or potato starch,) the breast of a large fowl, and an equal quantity of ham, chopped fine, or a veal sweetbread cut in pieces, and fried in butter ; from two to four ounces of rich cheese finely grated ; season the whole with salt, cayenne, and nutmeg ; well butter a pudding mould that shuts close ; let it steam over boiling water for a full hour. Serve with rich gravy thickened, or with melted butter.

3. Sweet.—1. A good family dish. Simmer in water with a little salt, half a-pound of maccaroni—strain off the liquor; have ready two quarts of milk in which has been boiled a piece of lemon rind, or cinnamon, or a few laurel leaves, according to the flavour preferred. Strain away the flavourings—stir the Maccaroni to the milk, let it stand a minute or two near the fire to become hot through without boiling, lest it should burn ; sweeten with loaf sugar. 2. Maccaroni for eating cold.—Simmer the maccaroni in milk flavoured as above ; when quite tender, strain dry the maccaroni in a dish, return the milk to the vessel, or rather put it in a clean one—milk is very apt to burn if boiled up a second time in the same vessel—to a pint of milk allow four or five eggs, finely beaten with loaf sugar to taste. Gradually stir to them a spoonful or two of the boiling milk ; then stir it to the whole, keep it over or beside the fire, stirring it one way till the custard thickens no longer —pour it over the maccaroni, and grate nutmeg at top. N.B. A double saucepan (after the manner of a glue-pot) is the best

for making custards, next to that a very clean brass kettle.

Maccaroni Pudding. — Simmer the maccaroni in rich new milk, flavoured as above, the addition of a part cream will be a great improvement: this should not be added till it is nearly done. To a quarter-pound of maccaroni allow four eggs; two ounces of butter; four ounces of loaf sugar powdered—well mix the last three ingredients, then add the boiling milk and maccaroni by little and little; put the whole in a buttered dish, grate nutmeg at top, and bake immediately, not suffering the mixture to cool before it is put in the oven; when the top is lightly browned the whole is done.

Vermicelli Pudding.—May be made exactly in the same manner, but it is not essential to simmer it at all; and when a pudding is wanted in a hurry, it is well to know how it may be most quickly done. The following simple preparation has been much admired—new milk a pint (even a spoonful of cream would be an improvement), four eggs well beaten; loaf sugar powdered, three ounces; almond flavouring, or pure essence of lemon, eight drops; vermicelli from two to three ounces; butter from one to two ounces. Butter a deep dish, into which put the milk, eggs, sugar, butter, and flavourings well mixed—lay the vermicelli at top, and grate nutmeg over; bake in an American oven half-an-hour; a few thin slices of bread and butter, with currants strewed at top, make an agreeable variety.

Vine Leaf Vinegar.—Fresh gathered vine-leaves with their foot stalks, and any vine shoots of the season, that have not at all become woody—of these drop into the cask intended to be used as many as will fill it lightly; these should not be gathered till the liquor is ready to add to them—prepared as follows:—For every gallon of water allow two pounds of the coarsest moist sugar, boil it half an hour, skim over a sieve, so that what runs through may be restored. The addition of shells and whites of eggs, or shells only, will assist the leaves, boil them in the sugar and water, and strain off when done. Cool quickly and work with yeast. When the working begins to subside the liquor sinks, and the froth draws together in a sort of flat cake; skim it, and put the liquor to the vine leaves in the cask—bung it down and leave it in a cellar or other convenient place for a month or six weeks—then draw off the liquor clear, empty the cask of the vine leaves—soak, scald, and thoroughly dry it; return the vinegar and with it one pint of vinegar, a handful of chervil, and two ounces of raisins to every gallon. It is now to be treated just as the treacle vinegar.—(See p. 89.)

Very excellent Vinegar may be made from the *lees of wine*, or from the *refuse of raisin or indeed any fruit wine.*—To any quantity of fruit pulp, add half its weight of coarse sugar or fresh raisins, stirring them together well. When the mixture begins to ferment, for every two pounds, pour over a gallon of spring water boiling; let it steep for two days, stirring frequently; then strain and work with yeast, as the foregoing articles—adding when the working subsides, vinegar, raisins and put the whole into the cask. The vinegar will be fit for use in one month, then tighten the bung.

Dandelion Drink—a most agreeable and wholesome beverage.—Half-a-gallon of dandelion roots; wash them clean; have on the fire five quarts of water fast boiling, into which put the roots, and let them boil fifteen minutes after boiling up; then strain: return the liquor to the vessel in which it was boiled, with one pound of sugar—let it boil again for two or three minutes. When nearly cold, stir in two large spoonfuls of good solid yeast; cover up, and let it stand a few hours; then strain, and put into bottles without corks.—Keep in a cool place. It will keep good several days, full a week, and may be drunk freely two or three times a day—it assists digestion, and purifies the blood, hence it is very good for children who are liable to breakings out, or troubled with worms.

CIRCUMSTANCES IMPROVABLE.

OUR social and commercial difficulties, however incapable of being met, as we firmly believe, by any organic changes in our institutions, or by any fiscal regulations whatsoever, they *are* capable of being met, if with the moderate reforms which may be necessary, the nation will in sundry particulars be prevailed upon to REFORM ITSELF. We are not afraid to acknowledge that we stand more in dread of the consequences of extravagance, luxury, and selfishness in the more wealthy classes, of periodic fits of mad speculation in the middle classes, and of habits of improvidence and reckless marriages in the working-classes, than of any now remaining abuses in our institutions; and on each of these topics a few words might be tolerated. We will begin with the lower classes. To the question, What is the adequate remedy for their evils? we answer, that there is none—none either in any reforms of our institutions, or in any changes in the amount of taxation, until they learn to exercise provident habits, and to contract prudent marriages—till they will learn to put by, when trade is prosperous, a portion of their earnings for days of depression, and to delay marriage until they can indulge some reasonable expectation of supporting a family.

Great as is unquestionably the distress which prevails through large portions of the country, it is equally unquestionable that there are thousands of those that feel it who have at times been in the receipt of wages, which, with economy, would have enabled them to put by something to meet the severity of this stormy day; and it is equally true, that at this moment, amidst all our commercial distress, there are thousands in the weekly receipt of more than they need spend, and who yet spend every farthing of it the moment it is paid. Though we admit that in such times as have recently passed over us, there must have been great distress in spite of the most provident habits, yet the more general prevalence of such habits would have prevented so sudden an accumulation of misery, and made all the difference between a manageable evil and one almost beyond remedy. Still more important is the second point to which we have adverted; and until the working-classes can be induced to exercise greater discretion and self-control in the matter of marriage, we do think it will be impossible to give them effectual aid. They are beyond all reach of human statesmanship. Whatever may be thought of the doctrine of the abstract tendency of population to increase in a ratio disproportioned to the means of subsistence,—a doctrine on which we have no occasion here to enter,—all men will practically admit that no miracles are to be expected to support those who have rushed into marriage without a reasonable prospect of meeting the exigencies of a family. Man is a reasonable creature: and that great social union is to be formed with a regard to prudence; no supernatural help is promised or will be afforded to him who neglects it. If the lower animals increase too fast, the remedy is easy,—they are knocked on the head. But direct infanticide is not likely to be in fashion among us. The correction indeed will come from increased pressure, sooner or later, and is coming now, as the registry of marriages will show. But if it come late, it will come from bitter experience, not from a salutary dread of it; from famine and pestilence, not from the operation of prudence and self-control which can alone produce an easy, because gradual, adjustment. The great laws which govern the universe here, as in so many other cases, are, in their primary design, moral, and not physical. The latter principally come into play only to correct or avenge man's neglect of the former; to reclaim him to wisdom, or to chastise him for his folly. The dictates of prudence will of course vary with the conditions of different ages and countries; and in a state of high civilization like ours, a man must often accept the greater advantages of such a condition, as a compensation for delaying the period of marriage, if he would preserve his *status* in society. This is no impossible lesson, though often an unwelcome one. It is one which is frequently practised by the middle classes, who in thousands of instances postpone marriage for one, two, three, and five years, and sometimes even for longer periods, rather than sink to a lower level in society, or encumber themselves with a family they cannot hope to rear, except to a heritage of misery. Such instances of abstinence in the lower classes (where it is still more needed) are of the rarest possible occurrence.—*Edinburgh Review.*

TRUTH.

When by night the frogs are croaking, kindle but a torch's fire,
Ha! how soon they all are silent: thus Truth silences the liar.

THE YOUNG GARDENER.

BY MARTIN DOYLE.—CHAPTER II.

Mrs. Giles was honoured one day with a call from Thomas Thorpe, Esq., of whom she rented her cottage. That gentleman had a fine house close by the village, and was at this time building a greenhouse and a small cottage adjoining it, for Mr. Hyacinth Primrose, a gardener whom he had lately hired.

Mr. Primrose was a steady, prudent, well-instructed middle-aged man, without any vain pretensions or nonsense about him; not fond of using hard words—half-latin, half-greek, mispronounced and mangled; but plain spoken and simple in his language. He dressed in stout cloth or velveteen, with horn buttons of the size of backgammon men, to his coat and jacket; and wore pockets large enough to contain if necessary half a bushel of bulbs.

Mr. Primrose had read much from the book of nature, learned much of the habits of plants, of the soils and treatment suited to particular kinds of them, and enjoyed many opportunities of reading a great deal upon such subjects in a gardener's library. He was to crown all, a religious, and therefore, a moral man.

The object of Mr. Thorpe's visit to Mrs. Giles, was to propose that she should receive Mr. Primrose as a lodger with board, until the cottage in the Park would be ready for him. As Mrs. Giles had a spare bed-room with nice peony-pattern calico for a window curtain, and rose-flowered bed furniture, and liked the staid and respectable appearance of Mr. Primrose, and was, moreover, glad to oblige her landlord, and add something to her income, she accepted the terms offered, and agreed to have the room prepared for the new-comer that very day. What Mr. Primrose was to pay by the month, and what he was to get for his meals is no affair of our readers, who have no concern in the matter farther than to be told that Richard was likely to pick up something more than a mere smattering of gardening from such a companion.

A large heavy deal box was brought without delay to Mrs. Giles' door in a cart. Mr. Primrose, the carter, and two other of Mr. Thorpe's labourers lifted it up stairs to the room, which the lodger was to occupy; the ropes were untied, and the workmen dismissed.

The first things taken out from a compartment in the great chest, were some carpenter's tools, which Mr. Primrose intended to use in making shelves for his books, of which Richard caught a glimpse; and how he longed to open them! Mrs. Giles having made no objection to the driving of some nails into the pea-green paper of tulip pattern (for in truth it was rather old and discoloured,) Richard was dispatched for boards and nails, and in a very short time, Mr. Primrose was sawing and planing them to the proper lengths, while Richard made himself as busy as possible in his endeavours to assist. When the shelves were fixed, the books and magazines were brought forth one by one, and as they passed through his hands, Richard could not help opening some of the leaves to look at the engravings of beautiful flowers, and would have gazed on them for hours, if Jane Jenkins, who was helping to dust the books, had not sometimes given him a friendly poke to stir him up to his work. Mrs. Giles who was all the time fussing about the room, in everybody's way, and doing nothing, gave Mr. Primrose many hints about her grandson's love of reading about gardens; and he worthy man, who understood her meaning, and Richard's turn of mind at a glance of his eye, said at once that the lad was welcome to the use of them, when his hands were clean, and that perhaps he himself would explain things to him,

"And teach the young idea how to shoot."

'We must *inoculate* him,' Mrs. Giles, said he—'Oh, Sir,' replied she, 'he had the cow-pock, when he was three months old.' 'I mean, ma'am, that we must *graft* something on this little crab-tree stock (laying his hand upon the boy's head) that will produce good fruit.' Mrs. Giles looked pleased, though she did not quite like to have Richard compared to a crab-tree. She assured Mr. Primrose, that he had a very sweet disposition, could write a beautiful hand, and spell words to no end. 'Come then, my little man,' said Mr. Primrose, looking very seriously, 'spell MESEMBRYANTHEMUM:' Richard, who had not imagined that there was so long a word in any Dictionary, appeared spell-bound, blushed—and then stumbled through it, leaving out two or three right syllables and introducing two or three wrong ones to make up the number, which he had counted on his fingers at starting. But Mr. Primrose was very good-natured, and told him that he did not expect he could spell such a jaw-breaker, though it was but the name of a flower, and had only proposed it in jest.

Mr. Primrose had his room soon settled, and took tea with Mrs. Giles for the first time, feeling very comfortable and quite at home in a snug corner at one side of the chimney, which was almost the only one in the village that did not smoke. The fire blazed cheerily and this made him very chatty and agreeable, until towards bed-time, when Richard and Jane read by turns, the 7th chapter of St. Matthew's gospel, without any corrections from Mrs. Giles, (who worked away at her needle,) with a short comment at the conclusion, showing how some people, like certain trees, bear good fruit, and others, like bad trees, bear bad fruit or none at all, even though there may have been an early show of blossoms. They ended with reciting from the hymn about God's works, which says—

> "There's not a plant or flower below
> But makes thy glories known."

In the winter nights boys and girls can learn a great many lessons, and agreeably too, if they have good candlelight, a blazing fire, and pleasant good-humoured teachers; a cross-grained one makes learning very distasteful to the pupils, and sulky, sleepy, or stupid pupils are great plagues to their teachers.

Richard soon began to take the liberty of putting questions to Mr. Primrose, who had encouraged him to do so, because he perceived that the questions were not asked for mere talk sake, or for puzzling, but from a desire for information.

BUGS, OR THE CIMEX FAMILY.

WISELY has it been remarked, that what God saw fit to create, cannot be unworthy of man's notice. In the insect world there are certain tribes, which, from their habits and conformation appear at first sight altogether repulsive; it is difficult to understand why they were made, or what good purpose they serve. Yet there is reason to believe, that each one is fitted to enjoy life in its own limited sphere, and if we cannot penetrate the mystery of their existence, we can at least find something in their history to impress the heart and inform the mind. The insects of which it is proposed to treat in the present article are familiar to most persons, yet the varieties are much more numerous than is commonly supposed. There are, according to Fabricius, 306 species of bugs: De Geer divides them into six families, of which, among the Hemiptera, the *cimex lectularius*, or bed-bug, forms one by itself. To this, and to one or two others of analogous nature which infest hen-roosts, pigeon-houses, and the nests of partridges and sand-martins, the genus is restricted by Latreille; much, however, is yet undiscovered respecting them. The general characteristics of the species are an extreme flatness of body, a boat-formed, oval figure, and absence of wings, with the faculty of emitting a powerful, and in most cases, a nauseous odour, on being disturbed. The first of these characteristics is so well known that in some parts of the Continent "flat as a bug," has passed into a proverb.

The bed-bug is unfortunately but too familiar an acquaintance; it is, perhaps, the most annoying and offensive of the insects by which human society in temperate climates is assailed. But as far as known, their habits and structure are not less wonderful than those of many which we regard with less repugnance. From their flatness they are able to insinuate themselves into almost imperceptible cracks and openings, and when they have once effected a lodgment, so rapidly do they multiply that it is next to impossible to extirpate them. They will live everywhere, in the joints of floors, behind the loose paper or plaster of walls, in the folds of curtains, hollows of mattresses, and in every cranny of a bedstead. Several instances are on record of whole colonies of bugs having been found under the toenails of persons of uncleanly habits during long confinement to bed with illness. When first hatched the young bugs are of a whitish colour, which gradually deepens until they assume the red brown hue of mature age. Apart from size, there is but little difference between the progeny and the parent; the former, during the earliest stages of their existence are deficient in the elytra or wing-cases, and the first ring of the body; these appear after the last change of skin. When full-grown, the head of the cimex, which is small in proportion to the size of the body, is concealed by a corslet, and furnished with a kind of solid muzzle serving as a support to the proboscis or trunk, which, when not in use lies flat underneath. The eyes which are round and very prominent, are covered with a black network, and sprinkled with small globular specks supposed to be minute auxiliaries to the two principal organs of vision. The skin of the belly is so transparent that all the functions going on within may be distinctly seen; it is covered, together with the forepart of the back and the legs, with short hairs, which, unlike hairs in general, are remarkable for being of the same thickness throughout: seen through a microscope they add very much to the formidable appearance of the animal. The body is composed of eight rings or divisions; the separations between them are all well marked, and by their mobility they assist the locomotive powers of the legs which are six in number. Persons whose misfortune it may have been to be present at a bug-hunt will well remember the speed with which the insects betake themselves to a hiding-place when disturbed. The trunk, or sheath, through which the real proboscis is protruded, is straight, and consists of four articulated portions: when sucking, the delicate instrument is thrust into the victim's skin, and that no impediment may be offered to the flow of the blood or other juice on which the creature lives, it is kept straight by the sheath being bent almost at a right angle, a process which admits of a steady purchase on the slender tube.

In common with the whole race of bugs the *cimex* is endowed with a keen instinct for the concealment of its eggs. Naturally averse to light, it deposits these in dark and almost imperceptible crevices. The females begin to lay in May; according to some authorities, they lay four times in the season, from fifty to sixty eggs at a time. Relatively speaking the eggs are large, of a light cream-colour, and flattened at one end, which projects as a lid with a white rim or collar running round it. Their external appearance may be compared to that of the husk of the edible chestnut on a minute scale; the prickles which are invisible to the unassisted eye are covered with a highly tenacious fluid by which the eggs readily adhere to the place where they are deposited. In three weeks the young appear; as they increase in size they push against the lid, which opens with a hinge at one end of the egg, and creep out through the orifice. As far as can be ascertained, the process by which the insects cast their skins has not yet been observed. They remain torpid during the winter, and as they can live long without food, many of them survive through two or more seasons. The winter of 1772 was remarkably cold, the temperature at times thirty-three degrees below zero, yet a collection of bugs kept in a box for the purpose by a French naturalist in Paris, and placed in a closet facing the north, survived the frigid experiment.

When laid upon their back bugs have great difficulty in turning over on their feet, and it is said to be impossible for them to crawl up glass, from which circumstance glass supports, or shields, have frequently been placed round the feet of bedsteads. The animals seem to prefer the blood of human beings to any other kind of food; they are not however, over-scrupulous, for they often attack one another, and the conqueror sucks his opponent dry, leaving nothing but a husk. They have other enemies besides man, for the *Reduvidæ* and *Ploiaria*, two families of the same race make a prey of them on all convenient occasions. The *Reduvius personatus* an insect which conceals itself under a little heap of dust or other light refuse matters, waits patiently in a corner, or creeps about with a motion so slow as to be unsuspected, until an unhappy bug chances to come within reach, when it is seized, and with one bite instantaneously killed. The naturalist, Latreille, was once bitten on the shoulder by one of these insects, when the effects of the poison were such as to cause the arm to remain swelled for several hours: the *Ploiaria*, also devour the cimices (bugs) whenever they meet with them.

The bug genus is peculiarly distinguished by the odour of the insects; the smell is generally most offensive; a few, however, diffuse a scent similar to that of wild thyme and apples. The odoriferous fluid in insects is secreted in the membranes, and in some cases is emitted from the abdomen, in others from the articulations of the head and joints. The smell of the cimex, perhaps the most offensive of all, has been compared to the odour of fetid cucumbers, but when in a state of perfect repose, or apparent safety, the insect is inodorous, and only emits the nauseous smell by which it is too well known, on being disturbed or threatened with danger. The instinct of the bed-bug which we have before adverted to, is further shown in its pursuit of prey. When no other means presents itself by which the insect can approach a sleeping person, it will climb up the walls and along the ceiling until immediately over the bed, when it falls down and begins its ravages. This proceeding has been frequently witnessed by the writer of the present article. In New York, where the heat of the summer engenders these pests by millions, he has often seen them drop down upon the bed in the dim gray light of the morning. And on one occasion, as if to leave no room to doubt the fact, while lying in a half doze, was unwelcomely awakened by the fall of one of the insects into his mouth. The most incredible stories are rife in every part of the United States, of the torments inflicted upon travellers by bugs, and the means taken to avoid their attacks.

It is a little remarkable that most accounts respecting the cimex describe it as having been unknown in London prior to the great fire in 1666. Southall, in his *Treatise of Buggs*, published in 1730, states, that the insects which had then been known about sixty years, were "every season increasing so fast upon us, as to become terrible to almost every inhabitant in and about this metropolis." That the subject was considered worthy of attention appears from the fact that the treatise received the approval of Sir Hans Sloane, and was read before the Royal Society. Southall, says, that he could meet with no books about bugs, and made inquiries of "learned men" as to their origin, but the only information he could get was, "that soon after the fire of London, in some of the new built houses they were observed to appear, and were never noted to have been seen in the old, though they were then so few as to be little taken notice of; yet, as they were only seen in fir-timber, 'twas conjectured they were then first brought to England in them, of which most of the new houses were partly built, instead of the good oak destroyed in the old." According to this writer the sap of deal is the favourite food of bugs, and he says that they never lodge in bedsteads made of oak, a belief which later experience has proved to be fallacious. He was mistaken also in his other statements, for the bug is mentioned as an object of terror in the neighbourhood of London as early as 1503, and the writings of Aristotle, Dioscorides, and others, testify to its having been known in Europe from very remote times; the name occurs in one of Martial's lines—*nec tutus cimice lectus*. Bug is a Celtic word, meaning ghost or goblin, and its application to the cimex conveys an idea of the dread with which the insect was formerly regarded. It was sometimes called *punez*, from the French *punaise;* and *chinche*, a name which it still bears in Spanish America, and in the United States, chintzes.

Familiar as these insects are to the inhabitants of densely populated places, in many of the smaller provincial towns and villages of this country they are altogether unknown. We have frequently met with persons who have never seen them, and who, when a visitor comes to them from London, submit his baggage to as rigid a scrutiny as at a Mediterranean quarantine station, lest the plague of bugs should be introduced. It is one of those subjects on which it may be truly said it would be "folly to be wise." But what we regard with aversion, others have hospitably entertained. In Forbes's *Oriental Memoirs*, an account is given of the Banian Hospital at Surat, in which all kinds of animals and insects were kept, including fleas, and bugs. The guardians of the Institution, it is stated, often hired beggars, or other needy persons for a small sum, to pass a night in the insect ward, to afford the tenants the opportunity of a feast, with the special understanding that the rapacious animals were not to be molested in their depredations. Very different is the spirit of a writer who relates his experiences in *Nicholson's Journal* for 1807. He tells us that he had taken a good house on lease, in Mary-le-bone, and during the first year found it to be so greatly infested with bugs, as to render all his efforts to get rid of them unavailing. He was at a loss to account for their numbers, when he learned "that during the time of a gentleman (the former occupant) who had lived in the house above twenty years, it had become overrun with this insect to a degree that appeared incredible; and that, until his death, he would not suffer his bedstead to be touched. The insects were sometimes seen crawling even upon the walls of his drawing-room. After his decease, millions were found upon his bed and chamber furniture." The writer then describes that by fumigation, new paint and paper, and stopping every crevice, he eventually succeeded in extirpating the intruders. Various remedies have been, from time to time, recommended as effectual antidotes to bugs—turpentine, sulphur, or corrosive sublimate. De Geer, however, dipped sheets of paper in turpentine, and placed the insects upon them, they manifested no other uneasiness than that they exhibit when exposed to the light of day. Inclosing them in a glass vessel filled with fumes of sulphur has failed to destroy them; though convulsed for a short time, the animals survived the experiment. Several plants, such as rue, *cucumis colocynthin* and the *thlaspi arvense*, are said to be cimicifuges; but on shutting up a bug for many weeks in a box, with a small branch of the latter plant, the insect not only did not die, but took up its quarters on the leaves during the whole time. The only real remedy in fact is scrupulous cleanliness: by frequently turning and brushmattresses, and every portion of bedsteads, rejecting all superfluous hangings, and admitting plenty of light and air into bedrooms, they may be effectually destroyed.

The sleeping-places in steam vessels and canal boats, are in almost all cases infested with bugs, but it has been recently observed, that when a canal boat has been used for carrying prepared railway sleepers, the bugs very soon disappear and never return. Should this fact be confirmed by further observation, it will furnish a useful hint for the removal of the pest. The material with which the sleepers are dressed, is a preparation of creosote; consequently creosote would be a bug-destroyer or disperser.

The name of bug is indiscriminately applied to a host of insects which bear no relation to the *cimicidæ*. The harvest-bug is a species of *acarus*. Many others live in decayed wood, old buildings, and the bark of trees. In Italy, according to Scopoli, the bed-bug acquires wings, and is thus enabled to shift its quarters at pleasure. There are, however, numerous families of winged and water-bugs; the former in the nympha state resemble the perfect cimex. One species may often be seen walking on the surface of ponds and ditches, where they devour insects and the animalcules floating in the water. Some of the winged bugs are very venomous; the bite of one peculiar to the Mauritius causes greater pain and irritation than the sting of a scorpion, the swelling lasts four or five days. The forests of Asia and Africa abound with wood-bugs, many of them very beautifully coloured; they suck the juices of plants and of insects, and in common with the cimices cast their skins in various stages of their growth. Continental gardeners are much pestered by several specimens of the *tingis* family called tigers, which commit great ravages in orchards and nurseries: they are most destructive to pear-trees.

Insects generally manifest not the slightest sign of parental feeling: De Geer, however, gives an interesting account of a bug which leads her young about in a flock. watching over and defending them with peculiar assiduity. He describes the pleasure he had often felt in observing their movements, as the parent with her family, from forty to fifty in number, crawled about on the branches of a birch, which tree is their abode during the summer months. " She never leaves her young," he writes, " and as soon as she puts herself in motion they all follow her, and whenever she stops on a leaf to suck the juices they collect around her. Thus she proceeds from leaf to leaf, and branch to branch, constantly watchful, and guarding her young as carefully as a hen guards her chickens. It happened one day," continues this author, " that I cut a branch of the birch, peopled with such a family. At first the mother was very uneasy and beat her wings rapidly, as if to scare away the unwelcome intruder, without changing her position; thus shewing that she remained for the sole purpose of defending her young. The male of this species is, however, the greatest enemy of the progeny; and it is to protect them from his attacks that the watchfulness of the female is principally directed. He devours them whenever they come in his way and she never fails to defend them from his assaults by every means in her power."

Many more instances might be adduced to shew that the generally detested tribes of bugs present much that is worthy of our observation and admiration. When their habits are better understood we shall in all probability understand their uses and the relation they bear to the rest of the animal creation. With an additional fact taken from Darwin's *Journal*, we bring our remarks to a close. This observant traveller while crossing the Pampas of South America slept at a place called Luxan; " At night," he relates, "I experienced an attack (for it deserves no less a name) of the *Benchuca* (a species of Reduvius,) the great black bug of the Pampas. It is most disgusting to feel soft wingless insects, about an inch long, crawling over one's body. Before sucking they are quite thin, but afterwards become round and bloated with blood, and in this state they are easily crushed. One which I caught at Iquique was very empty. When placed on the table, and though surrounded by people, if a finger was presented, the bold insect would immediately draw its sucker, make a charge, and if allowed, draw blood. No pain was caused by the wound. It was curious to watch its body during the act of sucking, as it changed in less than ten minutes, from being as flat as a wafer to a globular form. This one feast, for which the *benchuca* was indebted to one of the officers, kept it fat during four whole months; but after the first fortnight, the insect was quite ready to have another suck."

It is no small satisfaction to think, that however great may be the plague of the English bug, it is quite an innocuous and desirable insect compared with numbers of the same family in warmer climates. We remember hearing the wife of a missionary speak of the winged bugs of the East Indies. At times, she said, these dreadful insects would rush into their sitting-rooms in swarms, fly into the cup of tea as it was being raised to the lips, and into the mouth when opened to speak. There, no precautions of cleanliness can remove or even mitigate the nuisance. The insects are bred by the climate, and can never be extirpated. Here, cleanliness and persevering exertions, will certainly remove the plague. The only exception to this is, when a person resides in a very old house, the timbers, floors, &c., of which are much decayed, in this case, as the crevices cannot be stopped, the insects cannot be kept out, for they will find const nt shelter in the decayed wood, and will always make their way into the rooms. The best remedy in such a case is to leave the house.

RESTLESS HEARTS.

A mill-stone and the human heart are driven ever round;
If they have nothing else to grind, they must themselves be ground.

COTTAGE FARMER'S CALENDAR.

BY MARTIN DOYLE—JULY.

The Field.—As fast as vetches are cleared away, break up the ground for stone turnips, or cabbages of the drum-head or flat Dutch kinds. Cabbages may succeed early potatos, if a little fresh manure be added to the ground, or a supply of *liquid* manure, from the tank, can be obtained for watering them twice after they have been transplanted. This liquid manure will of itself be sufficient to ensure the success of the crop, and there can be no better season for collecting it, from the house-fed cattle than now, when succulent food for them is abundant. The cabbages ought to be put down from eighteen inches to two feet apart, every way. Cabbages, steamed or boiled and mixed with salt and bran, will be found of great value for pigs and cattle; they should always be given to the latter sparingly, either raw or after dipping in boiling water, which prevents flatulence. Treated in this way, every part of the cabbage is eaten with avidity by the cattle. By putting a little nitre into the milk-pail, before the milk is drawn, no bad flavour will taint it. A little of the same corrective substance may also be put into the churn.

The great object of the farmer ought to be, to keep his land under constant cropping, and especially with a view to cattle-feeding in the house. The preparation of the ground for cabbages, or transplanted swedes, (if manure be available for these,) will tell in a succeeding crop of wheat, whether sown in December, or in Spring—or of barley with clover, which will probably be preferable.

In any of our dry warm counties, a patch of buckwheat may now be sown. It will be found beneficial for poultry. It should be sown at the rate of a bushel per acre, on ground in good condition. The French manure for it, and consider it a good preparation for wheat. As it runs its course of growth and maturity in three months, it will ripen in October, which is often a very fine month in England and Ireland. This crop, by shading the ground and smothering weeds, acts, in this respect, as beneficially as vetches. Top bean-stalks, and take off potato blossoms; these operations increase the produce greatly. This is the chief season for rearing pigs, which the green food and refuse of the dairy will keep in good growing order until the time comes for fattening them on the barley-meal which the farm itself may produce.

Kitchen Garden.—Plant out savoys, borecole, or any other varieties of winter cabbages, and also brocoli, as soon as ground is cleared for them by the removal of the haulms of peas and beans, &c., &c. Plant cauliflowers also, not crowding them, in well manured and moist soil. The plants will require to be shaded from the sun for several days. If the weather be dry when any plants are being put into fresh ground, it will be necessary to soak their roots previously in puddle: the effects of this will be soon apparent. Plant out celery wherever you have vacancies, either in single rows, or in the economical manner directed in Mr. Paxton's *Cottage Calendar:* "Take out the earth from a deeply dug piece of ground, where the soil is rich and light, about six inches deep and four feet wide, laying it in a ridge along the side of the opening. Then add to the surface of the bed a layer of well-rotted dung three inches thick; turn this in carefully, bringing about two inches of soil to the top. Then plant in rows crosswise, fifteen inches apart, and six inches, plant from plant, reducing the tops slightly. By this method, a great number of plants are raised upon a small piece of ground." The mode of earthing under such circumstances, will be explained next month. Sow radishes and lettuces in the banks thrown up from the trenches, or wherever there may be vacant spaces. Sow winter spinach. No part of the garden should be left unoccupied for a single week. During this and the ensuing month, the stone turnip, early York, and other cabbage-seeds may be sown. Take up shalots when the leaves are faded and dry them in the sun. Give air to cucumbers in hot-beds, which may have been made with very little expense by mixing at least one-half dry leaves with the dung. A barrow-full of dung, with or without leaves, will now be sufficient for a cucumber bed in the open air. At first the plants must be protected by hand-glasses, or hoops and an awning.

Fruit Garden.—Reduce the too luxuriant shoots of fruit-trees, neatly train those of stone-fruit-trees which are to remain, and carefully displace leaves which obstruct the sun's rays from the fruit. Fruit-trees will be benefited by having the earth round them frequently stirred, but not deeply. Lettuces, or any plants whose roots do not strike far below the surface, may be sown near the trees.

Flower Garden.—Take up tulips and other bulbs that have run their course; they become injured if left in the ground. Put some annuals in their places, and pot others that are intended to stand in windows. Annuals generally should be in the open air now. Continue to propagate pinks by cuttings and pipings; old hot-beds will be found very useful now for rooting cuttings and pipings. Layer strong carnations: the fine flowering kinds are worth the trouble of guarding them from sun and rain by pasteboard shades, fastened to the stakes which support the flowers. Tie up dahlias as they rise. If they have been staked in the following simple manner no wind will shake them: "Place three sticks in an angular position, one of a height exceeding the probable altitude of the plant, the other two about one half its height. These firmly tied at their point of junction form a secure frame for the support of the plant."[*] Iron frames and hoops are, however, much neater. Thin out sweet-william, wall-flowers, and other such plants. Cut down pinks that have blown two years, or from which pipings have been taken, or remove them altogether if you have better ones to put in their place. Nail up climbers as they rise. Take up ranunculuses as the leaves fade, and let the roots dry gradually. Liquid manure, moderately strong, will promote the flowering of the choice annuals. Strike cuttings of the narrow-leaved myrtle; this plant, in pot, is a beautiful ornament to the window. Pot suckers of chrysanthemums in a compost of leaf mould, turf and rotted dung. Bud roses, of which the Chinese, Musk, Bourbon and Damask are still in bloom. Remove all decayed leaves, and wage continual war against weeds, grubs and insects.

[*] *Flower Garden*, by Martin Doyle.

TAYLOR'S BEE-KEEPER'S MANUAL.

A FOURTH edition of this useful work has just been published by Messrs. Groombridge; it contains such new information and instructions as have been brought to light and suggested by experience. From the natural history of the bee, the author treats of the various kinds of hives, the modes of management, and shows how bees may best be kept with profit and advantage. It is pretty well known that in order to be successful with bees, the person who tends them should show no signs of fear. Accidents, it is true, seldom happen; but Mr. Taylor recommends the use of a screen or dress made of thin muslin, which covers the head and face, is tied round the waist, and fitted with sleeves. With this, and a pair of thick woollen gloves no danger is to be feared. The author states that bees may be kept in health by proper care: "all their pretended diseases," as he observes, "are the result of cold, hunger, or the infection produced by a too close and long confinement during the winter." He says further, that no particular set of rules will apply in all cases for the keeping of bees; but that each bee-keeper should endeavour to suit his practice according to the situation of his hives, the nature and productions of the soil, climate, and so on. This is a hint well worth attending to, as many persons fail from not taking the trouble to think for themselves.

VARIETIES.

CHANGE OF AIR.—An occasional change of air may be said to be almost necessary to the perfect well-being of every man. The workman must leave his workshop, the student his library, and the lawyer his office, or sooner or later his health will pay the penalty; and this, no matter how great his temperance in eating and drinking—no matter how vigorously and regularly he uses his limbs—no matter how open, and dry, and free from sources of impurity may be the air of the place in which he is employed. In the slighter cases of impaired health, the sleeping in the suburbs of the town in which the life is chiefly spent, or even the spending a few hours of detached days in some accessible rural district, at a few miles' distance from the dwelling, may suffice to restore the healthy balance of the bodily functions, and maintain the bodily machine in a fit state for its duties.

HUNGARIAN MARRIAGE.—I was present at a Hungarian country wedding, on which occasion the bridesman (in this case a peasant) is wont to accompany the ceremony of delivering the bride to her bridegroom with a speech. Now the speech of this man was to the following purport:—'Young man, honour your bride. It is God's will that she should be your companion and friend, not your servant; this our Father in heaven evinced by making the woman out of the man's rib. If God had meant the woman to be the man's servant, he would have made her out of the man's heel to indicate that she should be his footstool; but the Allwise made her out of the part next to the man's heart, where she should reside.' More than once I have been present at Austrian country weddings, and have never heard anything of this kind. I have seen the Austrian peasant slily wink at the bridegroom, warning him of the yoke under which he was going to bend. I have found good-humoured jocularity, but never a shade of the grave solemnity which is so deeply rooted in the Hungarian nature, and which unites all classes in common feeling. There is so little of this in the Austrian mind, that the Hungarian is usually in Austria, and especially in Vienna, the butt of general wit.—*Memoirs of a Hungarian Lady.*

WASHING.

They that wash on Monday,
  Have all the week to dry;
They that wash on Tuesday
  Are not so much awry;
They that wash on Wednesday
  Are hardly free from blame;
They that wash on Thursday
  Wash in very shame;
They that wash on Friday
  Wash in haste and need;
And they that wash on Saturday,
  Oh! they are sluts indeed!

THE BEST MEDICINES.

Joy, and temperance, and repose
Slam the door on the doctor's nose.

The Corner.

CONVERSE WITH GOD.—How intimately conversant may we be with the invisible God, and that blessed Spirit that understands not only our words, but our sighs and groans, and the living sense thereof that is unutterable! God can also be conversant with us, whithersoever we go, wheresoever we are; so that as soon as we are minded to retire, we find him with us. As soon as we retire into ourselves, with a design to converse inwardly with the living God, he is immediately present with us, and it is as easy to converse with him as with our own thoughts. As soon as we think, so soon are we with God—as soon is he with us. In the twinkling of an eye we find him. We look unto him, and are lightened.—Thus with the cast of the eye the soul is filled; it finds itself replenished with a divine and vital light, diffusing the sweetest and most pleasant influences and savours through the soul.

FIRMNESS.

O Fortitude! divinely bright,
O Virtue's child, and Man's delight!
Descend an amicable guest,
And with thy *firmness* steel my breast.

Firmness is a very important quality, whether of the mind or of the body; it is one that recommends itself to worthy consideration. We all admire it more or less; those who do not comprehend its full value will often wonder at and respect it. We like to see firmness in a government because it assures us that the ordinary course of our political and social life is not likely to be disturbed, and we feel that the continuance of many of our most esteemed privileges depends on it. Sailors like to sail with a captain whose firmness may keep them in proper control in fine weather, and provide for their safety in storms. Workmen generally prefer a master who keeps firm discipline, before one who is always uncertain of his intentions. Children are happier under firm management, than when left to alternations of severity and indulgence, or to a take-care-of yourself system. Animals, too, are affected by firmness: it is well known that lions or tigers have sometimes been prevented from making their attacks by those they threatened showing a bold front. Horses know when they have a firm rider on their back, and will very often throw off a weak one. We prefer firmness in buildings also; it gratifies us to look on some old tower that has withstood the shock of time for a thousand years or more; and we shrink from trusting ourselves in an edifice which has the character of being unsound or unsafe.

On all hands then it appears that firmness is a desirable quality: it partakes of the nature of decision, and if people would but exercise it a little more than they do at present, they would find good account in so doing. We can all look round among our neighbours, acquaintances, and friends, and see many instances of want of firmness. Sometimes it is a tradesman who does not attend to his business; he has not the firmness to enable him to resist the invitations of others who waste a great portion of time and money in a tap-room, skittle-ground, or bowling-alley. Sometimes we see people living always in discomfort, the slaves as it were of their servants, because they have not firmness to establish a vigorous domestic government. How frequently do we hear of an individual in trouble "about a bill," because he had not the firmness to say no, when asked to sign his name! Many a one, in all ranks, and of all ages, from manhood to childhood, has been ruined and disgraced from not having the resolution to say no. How often do school-boys get into trouble, because when tempted to play truant and go a-fishing, they cannot say no! How many promising schemes have failed because the firmness was lacking which should have carried them to a successful issue!

Firmness of purpose and character, as well as the want of it, is to be found in all degrees of life. Who is there that does not know within his acquaintance some one whom no opposition causes to waver? he has marked out a course before himself and steadily pursues it. If he meet with an obstacle he fights manfully against it until it is overcome. There have been extraordinary and beautiful instances of firmness in women: mothers who have shewn the most praiseworthy spirit in the upbringing of their family, leading their children to high resolves and virtuous effort, often through sorrow and suffering. The firmness of some people animates them with the regularity and almost with the power of a steam-engine. Such individuals, whatever their sphere, stand out as noteworthy examples.

We have in these remarks considered firmness as associated with reasonableness, and no character can be complete without a union of the two. We do not advocate that sort of firmness which shuts the heart to kind and gentle influences; firmness and kindness may, and do exist together. Neither would we encourage the firmness which boasts of itself as infallible, which never changes its mind. It has been truly said that a man who never alters his opinion is either very ignorant or very foolish. Donkeys and mules exhibit extraordinary firmness on occasions, even the cudgel fails to convince them that another line of conduct would be agreeable. But brute firmness of this sort is nothing more or less than obstinacy, not far removed from stupidity, and we point it out in order that in case any one reading these remarks should wish to advance from weakness to firmness, he may at the same time control it by reason, and remember that:—

> " — obstinacy's ne'er so stiff
> As when 'tis in a wrong belief."

A CHAPTER ABOUT SUGAR.

PART II.

THE refining of sugar which had long been practised by the Chinese, was first made known in Europe by the Venetians about 1490, and attempted in England in 1544. The refined portion at that time, however, was chiefly in the form of sugar-candy, while the residue was coarse and black, owing to ignorance of the best methods of clarifying. Sugar-refining, or sugar-baking, as it is wrongly called, is now an important business in this country; the building in which it is carried on is generally six storeys high; there should be plenty of light, but neither damp nor cold. The raw sugar is taken from the hogsheads and heated in pans, containing from thirty to forty hundred-weights, with six quarts of bullock's blood, called "spice," mixed with lime-water. Care is taken to keep it just below the boiling point for two hours, by which time it is all fluid; the blood takes hold of all dirt and waste matters, and rises with them to the surface as scum, which is taken off and poured into the scum cistern. More blood is added and the heating repeated three or four times, each time making the sugar cleaner. It is then filtered into the clarifying cistern, where it is boiled and further concentrated, and transferred to the coolers, from which it is taken and poured into moulds placed in readiness with the broad end uppermost, in the fill-house. These moulds are next carried to an upper floor and turned down to drain, in a heat according to the quality of the sugar, and clay is used for cleansing in the same way as described of the Havana and Brazilian sugar. In this way, in from twenty-six to forty days, those white clean sugar loaves are made, seen in almost every grocer's shop, the finishing operation being to take off the moulds, to smooth the upper end of the loaves in a sort of lathe, and to pack them in blue paper. The double-refined sugar is clarified with white of eggs instead of blood. There is no mystery in sugar becoming white, because, that is its natural appearance. The dark colour is occasioned only by the treacle and molasses which will not crystallize, and consequently, as soon as these are washed or drained away, the sugar will be white and clean.

The sugar known as "double loaf," goes through two refinings; and the finer the quality the less heat is needed in the making. Care has to be taken that the tops of the loaves are not discoloured, and that the crystallization is equal throughout. Not a particle is wasted; the syrup that drains away is re-boiled and clarified to make "bastards," a commoner kind of sugar, which is ground and sold in a crushed state. The scum, too, is boiled over a second time, and the sweet matter obtained from it is used to mix with other boilings. Even after the manufacturer has done with it, it is still valuable; the "scum-boiler" buys it, and by trying it over the fire gets some further syrup out of it. The skill of the manufacturer may be judged of from the small amount of actual waste: "the best extract yet obtained by the most experienced refiners is stated to be in 112 lbs.—refined, 68 lbs.; bastards, 19 lbs.; molasses, 21 lbs.; waste, 4 lbs.—total; 112 lbs."

Endeavours are constantly being made to improve and shorten the process of sugar-making; some manufacturers have begun to use solutions of potash, or sulphuric acid, instead of blood, for clarifying; but, perhaps, the most important improvement discovered of late is that of drying sugar by centrifugal force, that is, whirling it round in a sort of box with amazing rapidity, in the same way that clothes are now dried in some large establishments in various parts of the country. This method dries the sugar in four minutes as thoroughly as four weeks on the old plan; it is besides of better quality and larger in grain. Common unsaleable sugar has been converted by this means into an article worth 36s. per cwt.

As before stated, sugar exists in several vegetables, particularly in the beet root. During the war with England in the first quarter of the present century, sugar became very dear in France, and certain scientific men in that country discovered that the sugar could be extracted from the root. The experiments were encouraged, and now there are about 400 beet sugar manufactories in France; the particular sort used is the white, or Silesian beet. The calculation is, that 247 acres of good land will produce 2400 tons of beet root, which will yield 120 tons of raw sugar, and sixty of molasses. The process of making is, to clean the roots, crush them to a pulp, put the pulp in bags, squeeze out all the juice, which is then prepared in the same way as cane juice in the West Indies. Large quantities of sugar also, are made every year in the United States from the sap of the sugar-maple tree.

Sugar is so agreeable and beneficial a product that its virtues have been greatly praised, and many comparisons drawn in its favour. Shakespeare says somewhere,

> "Your fair discourse has been as *sugar*,
> Making the hard way sweet and delectable."

Some writers have considered it as the panacea, or universal restorative, and that with plenty of sugar we might dispense with all other food and medicine. A celebrated French physician, Tronchin, used to recommend *eau sucrée*, sugared water, for almost every malady. Dr. Rush of Philadelphia says, "sugar affords the greatest quantity of nourishment in a given quantity of matter of any subject in nature." It is said also, that "the plague has never been known to visit any country where sugar composes a material part of the diet of the inhabitants;" and that "the frequency of malignant fevers of all kinds has been lessened by the use of sugar." And further, "the plentiful use of sugar in diet is one of the best preventatives that ever has been discovered, of the diseases which are produced by worms. Nature seems to have implanted a love for this aliment in all children, as if it were on purpose to defend them from those diseases." On this point Dr. Pereira observes:—"the fondness of children for saccharine substances may be regarded as a natural instinct, since nature, by placing it in milk, evidently intended it to form a part of their nourishment during the first period of their existence. Instead, therefore, of repressing this appetite for sugar it ought rather to be gratified in moderation. The popular notion of its having a tendency to injure the teeth is totally unfounded." 'It has been alleged,' says Dr. Wright, 'that the eating of sugar spoils the colour of, and corrupts the teeth: this, however, proves to be a mistake, for no people on the earth have finer teeth than the negroes in Jamaica.' It is probable, therefore, that this erroneous notion has been propagated by frugal housewives in order to deter children from indulging in an expensive luxury." Some writers have condemned sweets as injurious, but experience is against them. Sailors when short of other food on a long voyage have kept themselves alive and cured the scurvy by eating sugar. Dr. Franklin found that drinking syrup afforded great relief to pain from the stone; and sugar taken in large quantities, is an antidote to the poison of verdigris. When chemically examined, “the base of sugar is found to be a glutinous matter, which, in its proper combination, is extremely pure and perfectly soluble, and consequently, in the most favourable circumstance for easy digestion.” During a scarcity in the West Indies sugar was once used for several months to feed horses; and while the crops are being got in, the cattle and the negroes grow fat, sleek, and healthy, from eating the tops of the canes and drinking the juice. In China and India too, the same effects are seen; the sugar season is always known by the improved looks of the small occupiers during the harvest. In Cochin China, all classes eat great quantities of sugar, and use it for preserving vegetables, such as cucumbers, artichokes, radishes, &c., as well as fruits; and the king’s body guard are compelled to consume a plentiful ration of juice and sugar every day; it is said that 500 sleeker and fatter men are nowhere to be found. Sugar is also used as food for domestic animals, elephants, and buffaloes. The Duke of Beaufort, who died in 1702, was accustomed to eat a pound of sugar every day for forty years.

Raw sugar is adulterated by retailers with that made from potatos and sago. There is a manufactory for potato-sugar near London: the taste of the article is unpleasant, and not at all to be compared to that which comes from abroad. Burnt sugar is sold under the name of *essence*, or browning, to be used in cookery, and at times for colouring brandy, sherry, and beer. The burning takes away all the sweet and leaves a bitter flavour. As is well known, sugar is used for preserving fruit; it prevents putrefaction by absorbing moisture or keeping out air. Berzelius says, “latterly, sugar has begun to be more generally employed than formerly for the preservation of meat, in consequence of a much smaller quantity of it being required for preventing putrefaction than of salt, while it renders the meat neither less savoury nor less nutritive. Fish, when potted, may be equally well preserved by sprinkling powdered sugar inside them.”

Great quantities of confectionary are made from sugar, and when only cochineal or indigo are used to give the red or blue colour, little or no harm follows the eating; but too often poisonous matters are employed to create bright and attractive colours, which produce dangerous consequences when swallowed. Barley sugar is made from sugar boiled so long that it will no longer crystallize, with a little cream of tartar added during the boiling. Acid drops have tartaric acid powder thrown into the sugar while soft. For these white sugar is used: toffee and hardbake are made in a similar way from brown sugar.

What is called Spanish liquorice is made, not from sugar as is commonly believed, but from the juice of the liquorice tree. Great quantities are brought from Spain, and some is manufactured at Pontefract in Yorkshire. It is used to quiet a tickling cough, or irritation of the throat, and the quality ought to be good; but too often the pipe-liquorice sold in shops is very impure.

Sugar is found in more substances than would commonly be believed; a few of them are here selected as examples: the figures express so many parts in 100; for instance 100 ounces of barley meal contain 5 ounces of sugar—

Oatmeal . . .	8	parts in 100
Wheat . .	4 to 8	“ “
Bread . . .	3	“ “
Rice, less than . .	1	“ “
Gooseberries . .	6	“ “
Cherries (ripe) . .	18	“ “
Figs	62	“ “
Carrot juice . .	93	“ “
Cow’s, goat’s, & sheep’s milk	5	“ “
Ass’s, do. . . .	6	“ “
Woman’s, do. . .	6½	“ “

Besides all that has been here enumerated, there is another article produced from sugar, on plantations chiefly in the West Indies. Rum is made from the scumming, lees, and molasses, mixed with water, and boiled altogether in coppers containing from 600 to 1000 gallons. The mixture is left to ferment for five or seven days, and then distilled twice. 1200 gallons of wash will give 113 gallons of proof rum; and it is said, that a plantation which produces 200 hogsheads of sugar yearly, will produce also 131 puncheons of rum of 110 gallons each. The average is ninety-two gallons for each hogshead, or sixteen cwt. of sugar.

EXAGGERATED EXPRESSIONS.

Some time ago, a correspondent, whom I would not willingly neglect, requested me to pen a few plain remarks on the common evil of giving utterance to inflated expressions and remarks in common conversation.

It is a somewhat ungrateful task to tell those who would shrink from the imputation of a falsehood that they are in the daily habit of uttering untruths; and yet, if I proceed, no other course than this can be taken by me. It is of no use to adopt half measures; plain speaking saves a deal of trouble.

I love the man who steps along on his toes, that he may not tread on the toes or the heels of his neighbours. Some are remarkable for this habitual tenderness to their fellow-creatures, and it does my heart good to see it; but in a case where trifling is losing time, and decision is really necessary, we must run the risk of giving offence if we would really do good.

My correspondent says that I make capital "caps;" and that if all those who need them would wear them, my hints would be very profitable. I am, however, sadly afraid that most of the caps I make would fit my own head quite as well as they would fit the heads of my neighbours. But to my task.

The examples about to be given by me of exaggerated expressions, are only a few of the many that are constantly in use. Whether you can acquit yourselves of the charge of occasionally using them, I cannot tell; but I dare not affirm for myself that I am altogether guiltless.

'I was caught in the wet last night; the rain came down in torrents.' Most of us have been out in heavy rains; but a torrent of water pouring down from the skies would a little surprise us, after all.

'I am wet to the skin, and have not a dry thread upon me.' Where these expressions are once used correctly, they are used twenty times in opposition to the truth.

'I tried to overtake him, but in vain; for he ran like lightning.' The celebrated race-horse Eclipse is said to have run a mile in a minute, but poor Eclipse is left sadly behind by this expression.

'He kept me standing out in the cold so long, I thought I should have waited for ever.' There is not a particle of probability that such a thought could have been for one moment entertained.

'As I came across the common, the wind was as keen as a razor.' This is certainly a very keen remark, but the worst of it is that its keenness far exceeds its correctness.

'I went to the meeting, but had hard work to get in; for the place was crowded to suffocation.' In this case, in justice to the veracity of the relater, it is necessary to suppose that successful means had been used for his recovery.

'When I mentioned it to her, she turned as pale as a sheet.' I am sceptical enough to believe that had an actual comparison taken place, it would have been found otherwise.

'I have been sadly troubled with headache; I thought I should have died, I was so ill.' If they who use this expression on every light occasion, did really reflect on death as frequently as they represent themselves to do so, it might be attended with the most salutary consequences.

'You would hardly know her again, she is as thin as a thread-paper.' Either the thread-paper must have been of an unusual size, or she must have been very thin indeed.

'We came along the lane, a horrid road, up to our knees in mud.' Some people a little more diffident, satisfy themselves with saying, 'It was over my shoe-tops in mud.' All I can say is, that if either the one statement or the other be correct, it is high time the road should be mended.

'He is a shrewd fellow! as deep as a draw-well.' There is an old adage, that truth lies at the bottom of a well; I am afraid that it is not at the bottom of this draw-well.

'We stood there for an hour; my feet were as cold as ice.' If the feet were once as cold as ice, there would be very little heat left in the head or the heart.

'Oh, nothing will hurt him; he is as strong as a horse.' Some go even farther than this, and say, 'as strong as an elephant:' but both expressions are too strong to be consistent with fact.

'It must have been a fine sight; I would have given the world to have seen it.' Fond as most of us are of sight-seeing, this would be buying pleasure at a dear price indeed; but it is an easy thing to proffer to part with that which we do not possess.

'It made me quite low-spirited; my heart felt as heavy as lead.' We most of us know what a heavy heart is; but lead is by no means the most correct metaphor to use in speaking of a heavy heart.

'I could hardly find my way, for the night was as dark as pitch.' I am afraid we have all in our turn calumniated the sky in this manner; pitch is many shades darker than the darkest night we have ever known.

'I have told him of that fault fifty times over.' Five times would, in all probability be much nearer the fact than fifty.

'I never closed my eyes all night long.' If this be true, you acted unwisely; for had you closed your eyes, you might, perhaps, have fallen asleep, and enjoyed the blessing of refreshing slumber; if it be not true, you acted more unwisely still, by stating that as a fact which is altogether untrue.

'He is as tall as a church spire.' I have met with some tall fellows in my time, though the spire of a church is somewhat taller than the tallest of them.

'You may buy a fish at the market as big as a jackass, for five shillings.' I certainly have my doubts about this matter; but if it be really true, the market-people must be jackasses indeed to sell such large fishes for so little money.

'He was so fat he could hardly come in at the door.' Most likely the difficulty here alluded to was never felt by any one but the relater; supposing it to be otherwise, the man must have been very broad or the door very narrow.

'You don't say so!—why, it was enough to kill him!' The fact that it did not kill him is a sufficient reply to this unfounded observation; but no remark can be too absurd for an unbridled tongue.

Thus might I run on for an hour, and after all leave much unsaid on the subject of exaggerated expressions. We are hearing continually the comparisons, 'black as soot, white as snow, hot as fire, cold as ice, sharp as a needle, dull as a door nail, light as a feather, heavy as lead, stiff as a poker, and crooked as a crab-tree,' in cases where such expressions are quite out of order.

The practice of expressing ourselves in this inflated and thoughtless way, is more mischievous than we are aware of. It certainly leads us to sacrifice truth; to misrepresent what we mean faithfully to describe; to whiten our own characters, and sometimes to blacken the reputation of a neighbour. There is an uprightness in speech as well as in action, that we ought to strive hard to attain. The purity of truth is sullied, and the standard of integrity is lowered, by incorrect observations. Let us reflect upon this matter freely and faithfully. Let us love truth, follow truth, and practice truth in our thoughts, our words, and our deeds.—*Pithy Papers by Old Humphrey.*

WHAT IS MARRIAGE LIKE?

In a Devonshire lane, as I trotted along
'Tother day, much in want of a subject for song,
Thinks I to myself, (perhaps inspired by the rain,)
Sure *marriage* is much like a Devonshire lane!

In the first place, 'tis long; and when once you are in it,
It holds you as fast as a cage holds a linnet;
For howe'er rough and dirty the road may be found,
Drive forward you must, for there's no turning round!

But though 'tis so long it is not very wide,
For two are the most that together can ride;
And e'en then 'tis a chance but they get in a pother,
And jostle, and cross, and run foul of each other!

For Poverty greets them with mendicant looks,
And Care pushes by them with o'erladen crooks,
And Strife's jarring wheels strive between them to pass,
And Stubbornness blocks up the way on her ass.

Then the banks are so high, both to left hand and right,
That they shut out the beauties around from the sight;
And hence you'll allow, 'tis an inference plain,
That marriage is just like a Devonshire lane.

But thinks I, too, these banks within which we are pent,
With bud, blossom, and berry, are richly besprent,
And the conjugal fence, which forbids us to roam,
Looks lovely, when decked with the comforts of home!

In the rock's gloomy crevice the bright holly
grows,
The ivy blooms fresh o'er the withering rose;
And the evergreen love of a virtuous wife
Smooths the roughness of care, cheers the
winter of life.

Then long be the journey, and narrow the way,
I'll rejoice that I've seldom a turnpike to pay;
And whate'er others think, be the last to
complain,
Though marriage is just like a Devonshire
lane.

REV. J. MARRIOTT.

HOME EDUCATION.

INTELLECTUAL TRAINING.—PART VII.

We have hinted, in a former paper, that in our choice of books for children, we should distinguish between what are merely or principally meant for entertainment or relaxation, and those which contain the elements of useful knowledge; and that though the former are not to be neglected, the latter should occupy the more important position in libraries for the young. To the former class belong works of imagination, either in poetry or plain prose. To the latter belong those of history and science; and to these should be added biography and plain narrative.

We need not repeat what we have already said,—that it is highly desirable for children to know something of past events in the history of their own country: but their acquaintance with their native land will be very slight indeed if their information extends no farther than this. By all means should parents obtain for their children, books which tell of the present condition of their country, its productions, its commerce, its cities and towns, its principal divisions, its population, its government. Happily, books on these and kindred topics, are not difficult to be obtained, nor expensive to purchase; while it is absolutely necessary that such knowledge should form part of a good intellectual training.

Then, as Miss Edgeworth says, "natural history is a study particularly suited to children. It cultivates their talents for observation, applies to objects within their reach, and to objects which are every day interesting to them. The histories of the bee, the ant, the caterpillar, the butterfly, the silk-worm, are among the first things that please the taste of children, and these are the histories of realities."

"It were happy," wrote the celebrated William Penn, "if we studied nature more. The creation would be no longer a riddle to us. The heavens, earth, and waters, with their respective, various, and numerous inhabitants, their productions, natures, seasons, sympathies, and antipathies; their use, benefit, and pleasure, would be better understood by us: and an eternal wisdom, power, majesty, and goodness, very conspicuous to us through those sensible and passing forms; the world, wearing the mark of its Maker, whose stamp is everywhere visible, and the characters very legible to the children of wisdom. And it would go a great way to caution and direct people in their use of the world, that they were better studied and knowing in the creation of it. For how could men find the confidence to chase it, while they saw the great Creator staring them in the face in all and every part thereof? Their ignorance makes them insensible; and to that insensibility may be ascribed their hard usage of several parts of this noble creation." He goes on to say that "it is therefore a pity that books have not been composed for youth by curious and careful naturalists" on such subjects. This has long since been done; and the expenditure of a few pence, with the pleasant exercise of the intellect, will, in these days, put parent and child into possession of much information in a branch of knowledge that was beyond the reach of the most "curious and careful naturalist," of the times of William Penn.

Science,—we pray you, reader, not to take alarm at a word, which is really very harmless,—some acquaintance with what are usually called scientific subjects is essential to good intellectual training. It is not necessary that our children should be deeply versed in geology and astronomy, or in any one of the many other departments of science; but as we are quite sure that truth is to be preferred to error, and knowledge to ignorance, so is it desirable that our children should have some correct leading ideas, at least, of things which are daily presented to their senses. Your son, reader, will not be a less skilful labourer, artizan, or tradesman, for knowing that the world moves round the sun, and not the sun round the world; and your daughter will not be less fitted for a useful and active sphere of life, by having her understanding enlightened respecting the orbits of Venus and Saturn. No, no. Their time and your money may be worse spent than in forming some little acquaintance with the first rudiments of science. To do this, much of either will not be required: and if in going a little into these subjects for the sake of your children, you should haply gain some small increase of knowledge yourself, rely upon it, you will be none the less happy for it.

Biography—the lives of the great and good of both sexes, not merely of boys and girls, but of men and women, will be found powerful incentives to moral and intellectual excellence; and neither parent nor child would, we think, willingly dispense with this kind of literature.

Then, how is it that people in general know so little of the common, every-day matters by which they are surrounded? Take, for instance, an article of clothing, and how few are there who could give an intelligent account of it, from the raw material of which it is composed, and the country in which it is produced, to the finished manufacture which perpetually meets their eye, and ministers to their comfort. Or, take an article of food or luxury, and why should not our children be able to say something about its native country, its cultivation, the processes it has to undergo before it is adapted to taste and nutriment? There is no good reason why not: and it would be well—nay, it is needful in a thorough good intellectual training, that children should be supplied with the means of obtaining such desirable information.

We might mention several other subjects on which it is highly important that our children should get some knowledge from books: but we have said enough, we trust, to establish the principle, that information on any subject is not only not to be despised, but is to be sought for by all available means. And we earnestly urge upon such of our readers as have not had the opportunity, in their younger days, of laying in a large stock of general knowledge, to aim at a higher standard of intellectual attainment for their children. In proportion as their minds are cultivated, and as they take pleasure in mental pursuits, will their temptations to the unworthy gratifications of sense be diminished, and their real and permanent happiness promoted. Do not fear that their bodily activity and industry will be injured by such a course. The very opposite result will be more likely to follow. A well-stored mind will help to sustain them under the pressure of life's necessary and unavoidable trials, and a sound and expanded education will prepare them for rising in the scale of society, and for any station to which industry, perseverance, sobriety, and honesty, may possibly advance them.

We do not insist that the library of every child should contain books on all the subjects to which we have referred; for though we advocate the plan of the separate and personal possession of books by children, we should be sorry to nurture a feeling of separate interests. Let each child be encouraged in lending his books to a brother or sister: in short, let such a feeling of mutual interest be kept alive as to prevent the selfishness which sometimes prompts a child to say, 'That is my book, or my top,' or my anything else, 'and you shan't have it.'

Moreover, we have taken it for granted that the parents will have a library of their own. It is a pleasant sight to see a well-furnished book-shelf in a cottage; and we wish that every cottage had one. A quarter of the money that some working-men think it needful to spend on tobacco, and a twelfth part of the amount it costs them for beer, would furnish sufficient reading for their and their children's leisure time, all the year round. And though the variety of subjects we have referred to may look rather formidable on paper, we would engage, for a shilling or two, to furnish well-written and interesting book information on the whole of them. We turn now to another topic.

FIVE MINUTES TOO LATE.

Too late! these are disheartening words to hear; yet I know some persons who are continually obliged to hear them: go where they will, or do what they will, they are always *too* late: it may be only a few minutes, it may be more, but they are invariably behind their time. In most instances this proceeds from a habit of putting off to by-and-by what ought to be done *now*. This was the fault of Peter Lawless; he commenced business with very good prospects, and but for his habit of putting off, might have in due course realized a fortune. It so happened, however, that no one could get his orders from him at the time appointed: at first this was attributed to press of business, and his customers, though often very much annoyed, were kind enough to bear with it; but people will not bear with disappointments of this sort long, and several who were disposed to deal with Lawless, were at length forced to leave his shop and go elsewhere for what they wanted.

'Well, Lawless, are my things ready to-day?' was a question frequently asked—and as frequently answered by 'No, sir; but they will surely be to-morrow.' 'You said so a fortnight ago,' the applicant would reply, 'I shall not call again.' Call when they would, customers were always put off till 'to-morrow.'

'It is impossible to please every-one,' said Peter to his wife, as he sat down to a dinner which had been waiting for him half-an-hour, 'I'm sure I do what I can and it's a hard thing to have goods left on my hands because they are not ready at the exact moment.'

'Are you quite sure, my dear Peter,' she asked mildly, 'that you do what you can?'

'How can you ask such a question as that?' he returned rather testily, 'did you not see how I worked to get those things finished for Mr. Wilmot, and after all he came to say he wouldn't have them.'

'The gentleman waited a long time, dear, and you know he sent very often before he refused to take them—we can't blame him.'

'Can't blame him, do you say?' added Lawless, 'but I do blame him, and I think he'd blame himself too, if he only had patience for five minutes longer.'

'You promised him so often, Peter,' urged the wife, 'how could you expect him to have patience any longer?'

'Pshaw, nonsense, woman,—that's the way you always talk,' rejoined Peter, 'it's impossible for a tradesman to keep all his promises: and it's very hard, you must allow, to have one's work refused, because it happens to be five minutes late.'

'We should never promise what we cannot perform, dear, and when we do promise, we should keep in mind that five minutes late often comes of five minutes wasted.'

'You don't mean to say,' continued Peter, 'that I waste my time: no one works harder.'

'You do indeed work hard when you *do* work,' returned Mrs. Lawless, 'but why? is it not because you are trying to do in one hour, the labour that would be more than enough for *two*?'

This was truth, and Peter felt it to be so, though he would not allow it. 'Well, well,' said he, 'better late than never. I do what I can, and no one can do more. There's our neighbour Timely over the way, he takes things quite easy, and yet his goods are never left upon his hands as mine are.'

'He is always punctual, dear,' gently observed Mrs. Lawless, 'and people go to his shop because they say they get good articles, and are always sure of having them when he promises.'

'Well, I'm sure no one can help being sometimes late; and if people will be annoyed, it can't be helped,' said Lawless.

'Ah, Peter,' answered his excellent counsellor, 'why should we not try to be as regular as Mr. Timely; might you not take a lesson from him?'

'A lesson from him, indeed! a lesson from Timely! you would have me go to school again, I suppose?' said Peter with considerable indignation.

Mrs. Lawless waited until the temporary storm was over, and then observed, 'It is never too late to learn. If Mr. Timely's business prospers while ours falls off, let us remember that he is never *too* late, while we *always* are.'

A few weeks after this conversation, the assizes had commenced in Uxthorpe. The town was full of strangers, and trade was brisker than usual. Lawless' shop was in one of the leading streets—a most eligible situation—Mrs. Lawless was behind the counter, and her husband apparently very busy at a desk near the window, when a gentleman—a stranger, entered, and having looked over several articles, purchased some which suited him, and gave an order for others. The whole were to be sent the following evening to one of the principal hotels, and paid for on delivery.

'You will take care to have them ready for me,' said the stranger, 'as I shall certainly leave town by the train at six to-morrow evening.'

'They shall be ready, sir, without fail,' answered Peter.

His wife trembled as she heard this promise made: she had heard so many of the same kind before: made only to be broken. She knew too, that this order would require all the intervening time to complete it, and resolved to do what lay in her power to keep her husband to his word.

The gentleman after leaving the shop, had crossed the street to that of their neighbour Timely, where he remained for a short period, and then was seen going in the direction of the court-house.

'I'll engage he has given an order to Timely too,' said Lawless, 'you'll see which of us will be first. Now, Sally, I have been thinking over all you said the other day, and am determined not to be *too late* in this instance.'

The heart of Mrs. Lawless was full of joy, and she said, 'don't you think it would be well to begin at once, dear, there is a great deal to be done, and the time is short.'

'Yes, yes, Sally, I want just to finish this account, and then'—

'But, my dear Peter, that account is of no importance: besides, I can do it for you if you wish it.'

'You are always in a hurry, Sarah, can't you wait for five minutes?' and he went on with his account.

Half-an-hour elapsed: he was still at the desk, and showed no intention of making any preparation for the work he had just undertaken.

'Do you think you will be able to complete this order as you promised, Peter?' again interrupted his wife.

'Complete it, why not?' he rejoined.

'Because, my dear, it will require all the time you can give to it, and you have already lost half-an-hour.'

'Pooh, pooh, what is half-an-hour? it's only to work the harder, and it wont make five minutes difference one way or the other.'

'But five minutes late, Peter, will make a sad difference to us; remember the traveller from Messrs. Grimshaw's house will be here the day after to-morrow, and if we have no money for him, he will take proceedings against us: he said so the last time he called.'

'You are always desponding, Sally,—but don't be afraid this time: I'll set to work in earnest by-and-by.'

At last Lawless was fairly at the work which ought to have been commenced before. His anxious wife was by his side to encourage him—the night advanced—it was late when they retired—the morning dawned. Peter thought of several things which he should do previous to resuming again—he lost more time. Still however the work progressed, for he wrought the harder—noon came—he took a hurried dinner. 'I shall be ready now,' said he, as he sat down and began to examine some unfinished article that lay near.

'My dear Peter,' said his wife, 'what have these things to do with your present work? let me remove them.' As she spoke she placed them at some distance from him.

The town clock struck four! he was still busy—then five! he was not yet finished; but 'nearly so,' he said. Mrs. Lawless looked very pale—the chimes went a quarter-to-six! a minute more and Peter cried, 'There, there, done—and time to spare too!'

'Hush!' said his wife, 'the packing.'

'Oh, I never thought of that,' exclaimed Peter, 'make haste!'

A messenger arrived from the hotel to say that the gentleman was just starting.

'The parcel will be ready immediately,' said Lawless. 'Look sharp then, or you'll be too late,' replied the other as he hastened away.

The packing was completed. Peter hurried off—he reached the hotel—the omnibus had started! what was he to do? the station was at least half-a-mile distant. He ran until he was out of breath—a fly was passing—he called to the driver and got in—the horse was urged on—they arrived at the station—the train had gone? and as Peter descended from the fly, a porter quietly remarked, 'just five minutes too late!'

'How very provoking,' thought Lawless, 'after all my hard work, to be disappointed in such a manner. At this moment he observed Mr. Timely coming out of the railway yard: 'Ah,' said he, 'Timely was late too, I'm sure I can feel for him.' 'Well, Mr. Timely, we can't help these annoyances,' he observed, addressing his neighbour in a consoling tone, 'I hope you have not lost much?'

'I have lost nothing, thank you,' returned Timely, 'though I fear you have.'

The countenance of Lawless changed colour, 'what!' he asked, 'and were you not too late also?'

'No, certainly not,' answered Mr. Timely, 'I finished the work by four o'clock, and took it to the hotel, where I was paid for it. The gentleman wished me to see the parcel safely deposited at the office here, which I did, half-an-hour ago, and it went with him in the train.'

All this was very mortifying to Peter. His conscience told him that he too might have been in time, had he not wasted the moments in which he should have been employed at the work he had engaged to do. With bitter feelings he returned home. His wife was waiting for him in the shop: when he entered she saw the parcel still under his arm — that was enough—it told the sad tidings as plainly as any words.

'O Peter, Peter, you were too late.'

'It can't be helped now, Sally,' he replied, 'but it is very annoying to think that it was only five minutes after all.'

'Five minutes,' echoed Mrs. Lawless, sorrowfully, 'five minutes too late

The next day Messrs. Grimshaw's traveller arrived—the bill was not paid. The ceremony of opening the shop continued for a few weeks longer: it was a mere ceremony, for it might just as well have remained closed: but few entered it, and at length it remained closed. Large printed hand-bills on the shutters, informed the neighbours and the passers-by, that the stock-in-trade, &c., &c., were to be immediately sold off under a sheriff's warrant.

Let all who would prosper in business take warning from the failing of Peter Lawless, and study to avoid being even 'five minutes too late.'

THE YOUNG GARDENER.

BY MARTIN DOYLE.—CHAPTER III.

THE GROWTH OF PLANTS.

Richard.—'I should like to know, sir, what it is that makes a seed grow?'

Mr. Primrose.—'Moisture, heat, and air: it would take much time to explain to you how they cause a seed to grow: you can, however, I think, understand that moisture softens its dry, hard parts, and alters them, and that more or less of heat is necessary to bring these alterations about.'

R.—'Will great heat kill seeds?'

Mr. P.—'If you mean natural heat, I think not; kiln-dried seeds will not grow —but boiled seeds, if protected by a hard skin, may grow. Dr. Lindley, one of whose beautiful books* is now in my hand, relates how some raspberry seeds which had been picked from a jar of jam, and therefore exposed to the boiling point of syrup, grew. As to air, you can conceive its necessity to the life of plants, since animals cannot live without it. Our lungs must have air or we die: plants are living things.'

R.—'But plants do not breathe in the same way?'

Mr. P.—'Not exactly in the same manner; yet they may be said to breathe: they take in air, and they perspire.'

R.—'What part of them does so?'

Mr. P.—'The leaves.'

R.—'The leaves! how do they do it?'

Mr. P.—'In this manner:—the skin of the leaf is covered all over with little invisible pores—like those in your own skin —through which the plant breathes and perspires. Some plants, you know, have very large leaves, and others very small ones—or scarcely any at all. God has made plants which have a very thick skin and few pores, to grow in very dry climates and situations, and such as are thin skinned and covered with pores, to grow in moist climates and damp places.'

R.—'Do a few large pores serve as well to let in air and let out perspiration as a great many small ones?'

Mr. P.—'You remember the word

* Theory of Horticulture.

Mesembryanthemum which you didn't spell quite correctly the other day.'

R.—'I can spell it now; it is longer than Nebuchodonosor.'

Mr. P.—'Well; that plant, which is a native of the Cape of Good Hope, where it grows in the crevices of dry rocks, has about *seventy thousand* pores on one square inch of surface, which are the smallest pores known; and the *Crinum-amabile,* which is a native of swampy places in India has but *forty thousand* pores on the square inch, and ten thousand of these have more power than seventy thousand of the others,—here, I can show you this fact in the book.'

While Mr. Primrose was showing this in Dr. Lindley's book, and many of the other matters about which they had been talking, and pointing to some of the plates which explain the frame-work and constitution of trees and other plants, he was often interrupted with, 'Dear, me;' 'Well, well, isn't it wonderful!' and Jane Jenkins soon began to try how many holes she could prick with a fine-pointed needle on a square inch of paper; but she pricked one of her fingers at last, while making the trial. After a little chat about the wonderfully minute size of those pores, which the naked human eye cannot perceive at all:

Mr. P. went on:—'Now, you understand how the leaves serve as lungs; but they do more, they serve as a stomach also, through the veins that you may see crossing them. They *prepare* the food for the use of the plant: and when anything puts them out of order, the plant becomes unhealthy and starved to death.'

R.—'How is it that evergreens and grasses don't lose their leaves in winter when most plants lose theirs?'

Mr. P.—'That there may be always some vegetation, in the green livery of nature, to gladden man's heart and give support to men and different sorts of animals. If at the fall of the leaf we were to have no green plants the earth would look miserable. Though we have not here "the tree of life which bore twelve manner of fruits, and yielded her fruit every month," God has given us instead of this emblem of immortality, a never-ending succession of plants in leaf, so that if some lose their leaves at the approach of winter, (those called deciduous) and sleep until the next spring, others remain more or less awake. God gives plants different habits and constitutions for the benefit of his living creatures.'

R.—'How does a plant grow?'

Mr. P.—'The seed is sown; the earth is under it and the earth is over it; but there is soon under the surface a living seed. Perhaps if you look for it you might not distinguish such a small thing, and if you do, its appearance at first is scarcely altered from what it was before. Well, after some time, soft rains have fallen, mild suns have risen and set, a blade or two is discovered here and there, and in a few days more, the new-born plant waves in the breeze as if rejoicing in its life.'

R.—'Can you tell me, sir, what part of a plant grows first?'

Mr. P.—'The root. The moment a seed *is born* the root strikes downward and takes hold of the ground.'

R.—'Will seeds that are put as deep in the earth as they can be, without being smothered, take a firmer hold than those that are lightly covered?'

Mr. P.—'No; it is quite a mistake to suppose that a heavy covering of earth over seeds will give the plants more hold of the ground. If the soil be properly loosened, the roots fix themselves in it, even though the seeds may have been covered only sufficiently to screen them from the light while they are making the first movement. But a large seed such as the bean, requires, of course, much more depth than the seed of mignonette. The stem of the bean has sufficient power to burst through a thick coat of clay into the free air, whereas the little seed would be smothered if it were not very thinly covered.'

R.—'What is the use of screening seeds from the light while they are beginning to grow?'

Mr. P.—'It would be difficult for you at present to understand the why and the wherefore of this; but you shall one day read all about it—also how light gives colour to leaves and flowers, and flavour to fruits: but you may be sure that light *has* such powers.'

R.—'Does the stem grow next?'

Mr. P.—'After the root has stretched itself into the soil, the point which is soon to become the stem, peeps forth and unfolds the *seed leaves,* which contain matter to nourish the first *leaf bud,* until it becomes itself furnished with leaves. The newly-born plant is thus fed at first by the seed leaves,—which perish immediately afterwards: it takes nourishment at first somewhat as a chick takes into its body before it leaves the shell, the yolk of the egg in which it has become a living creature, and supports itself with that for some hours, until it is able to pick up other food.'

R.—' But you haven't told me how the stem grows?'

Mr. P.—' The first leaf bud lengthens into the stem.'—

[Here Mr. Primrose took a pinch of snuff, and told Richard to bring him a good-sized juicy cabbage stalk with its roots. While Richard was pulling one in the garden, Mrs. Giles poked the fire and put some wood over the coals and snuffed the candles. She had never before heard so much about plants, and was rather mystified. Jane had been thinking about the chicks, and longed to have a brood-hen,—but her attention was again stirred up when Mr. Primrose took a pruning-knife out of one of his waistcoat pockets, and cut the stem of the cabbage across, some inches above the root.]

Mr. P. (in continuation).—' The points of these roots, which are called *spongelets* (because they suck up juices and gases from the soil like sponges) can push through the chinks and crevices of the earth in search of food, which they send upwards by these roots into the stem. You see this watery substance in the stalk, which I have cut open;—this juice contains earths and salts in a dissolved state, and *gases*, and is called *sap.*'

R.—' What are gases?'

Mr. P.—' Substances such as the hartshorn or *ammonia* that rises from stable litter and makes our eyes water. The sap rushes upwards through the softest part of the stem—you may see it here in the cabbage-stalk—called the *alburnum*, which is next the inside coat of the rind, called the *liber*;—as this sap rises to the upper parts of the plants it thickens (from dissolving and taking up other substances in its course) and flows into the leaves by a certain set of veins in them called the *superior* veins.'

R.—' Does it flow off at the leaves?'

Mr. P.—' The watery portion passes away through them, but the remainder after undergoing a great change in the leaves, flows downwards through the stem, nourishing all its parts.'

R.—' But how does the sap flow down without being stopped by the sap rising through the *alburnum*?'

Mr. P.—' Because it comes down by a different channel—that is by the *liber*, though part of it passes the rising stream into the inner part of the stem, (where in trees, it forms the heart-wood) by certain cross tubes.'

R.—' What makes the sap flow?'

M. P.—' A power in the roots, helped by the attracting power in the leaves.'

R.—' I suppose that power is strong?'

M. P.—' Yes; so strong that it has burst in forty-eight hours a piece of bladder tied firmly with waxed twine on the shoot of a vine which had been cut through when the sap was first rising. The bladder though drawn closely to the top of the shoot, soon stretched as it filled with the sap, became as hard as a cricket-ball, and then burst open.'

R.—' Does the sap rise and fall in winter in plants which are then in leaf?'

Mr. P.—' Yes; but the lazy movement of the fluids then taken up by the roots merely keeps the plant alive, and is not called the flow of the sap. Until the leaves stir themselves in spring and set the roots at full work, the true sap does not flow.'

R.—' Is the resinous substance of the fir-tree true sap?'

Mr. P.—' Yes; and sometimes the true sap is lusciously sweet, like that of the maple-tree, which when boiled, is used in America as sugar. Gum also is the true sap (called the *cambium*) of certain trees, and these substances are all produced from the rising sap, by the wonder-working power of the leaves.'

R.—' Though moisture, heat, and air, as you have told me, are necessary to make plants grow, I am just now thinking that earth is not always necessary.'

Mr. P.—' What makes you think so?'

R.—' Because I have seen cresses growing on a cork floated in a saucer of water, and the hyacinths here on the mantlepiece, are growing in glasses with only water in them.'

Mr. P.—' Such plants find sufficient food in pond or river-water, which contains nourishing, earthy substances, and they do not want fixity for their roots, because the bulbs from which they issue, are supported by the glass. You are to recollect that plants take their food only in a fluid state; even when their roots are in the earth its solid substances can do them no good as food,—those substances must be dissolved before the roots can suck them in.'

R.—' Since the roots of plants take up their food in a fluid state, is there any danger of their sucking up poisonous liquids?'

Mr. P.—' Doctor Lindley says that a tree may be destroyed as readily as a human being by presenting opium or arsenic to its roots?'

By this time Mrs. Giles was yawning and playing billy-winky with her eyes. Jane thought they all had enough of plants. Richard, however, was wide awake with eager curiosity; and he would have asked questions and listened to the answers until morning; but he could not venture to ask Mr. Primrose any more questions that evening, or keep the family any longer out of their beds.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES.

The origin of societies or clubs for mutual aid and protection, is more ancient than is commonly supposed; we find it in the history of our own country as recorded by Sharon Turner. This writer says, " the guilds, or social corporations of the Anglo-Saxons, seem on the whole to have been friendly associations made for mutual aid and contribution, to meet the pecuniary exigencies which were perpetually arising from burials, legal exactions, penal mulcts, and other payments or compensations." But here we see no evidence of providing against future want or calamity, as is the avowed object of numerous associations in the present day; this is in fact the main characteristic of modern societies; and this faculty of foresight, of storing up against the unknown yet certain requirements of the period of age and infirmity, is one that eminently distinguishes man as a rational being.

The first attempt made to bring Friendly Societies within the rules of law took place in 1773, when a bill for that purpose passed the House of Commons, but was thrown out by the Lords. A similar case occurred in 1780; but in 1793 another bill, brought forward by Mr. G. Rose, was passed into a law. The preamble set forth, " that the protection and encouragement of Friendly Societies in this kingdom, for securing by voluntary subscription of the members thereof, separate funds for the mutual relief and maintenance of the said members in sickness, old age, and infirmity, is likely to be attended with very beneficial effects, by promoting the happiness of individuals, and at the same time diminishing the public burthens." The benefits of this act were afterwards extended to other societies, of benevolent and philanthropic purposes, throughout the kingdom; and in 1817 the Savings' Bank Act was passed, which empowered the treasurers of Friendly Societies to deposit their funds in such banks, thereby obtaining greater security than before. Other acts and statutes followed, in 1829, 1832, and 1834, for the prevention of fraud and abuse, and permitting any persons to meet together, and bind themselves by rules which may not be contrary to the laws of the land, they may impose fines for the observance of those rules, alter and amend them from time to time, but always with consent of the majority. There must be a declaration in the rules as to the object of the society, the disposal of the funds, and the way in which the benefits are to be shared. Before they can be put in force the rules are to be " submitted, in England, and Wales, and Berwick-on-Tweed, to the barrister-at-law for the time being, appointed to certify the rules of savings' banks; in Scotland, to the Lord Advocate, or any of his deputies; and in Ireland, to such barrister as may be appointed by her Majesty's Attorney-general in Ireland, for the purpose of ascertaining whether such rules are in conformity to law and to the provisions of the Act." They must afterwards be certified by the court of Quarter Sessions of the district, and until this is done the rules are not binding, neither can the benefits conferred by the act be claimed by any of the members. The treasurer, too, is required to give bond and surety for the proper discharge of his duty, and at the end of every five years a statement of the sickness and mortality among the members must be sent to the barrister, who forwards them to the Secretary of State. All such societies as did not avail themselves of these regulations by the year 1834, were not to participate afterwards. Thus, Friendly Societies were constituted on a safer basis than before, there was no longer a necessity for their meeting in public-houses, where too often they were continued chiefly for the landlord's profit: still, however, in too many of them the scale of payment was such, that the promises they held out could never be realized.

There are some persons who believe, that in all cases it is best to place their money in the savings' bank; but where the means are very small the principle of one general fund is the best. A man who pays his money to an insurance company against fire, does himself more good than if he were to lay by every year the amount of the premium only. It has been shown, that he who makes deposits in his own behalf alone, is exposed to more casualties than he who pays in with a society, because something may happen to make him spend his money, and so when he is past work he has not enough left to keep him, or to buy an annuity. On this point the Parliamentary Report states: "Whenever there is a contingency, the cheapest way of providing against it is by uniting with others, so that each man may subject himself to a small deprivation, in order that no man may be subjected to a great loss. He upon whom the contingency does not fall, does not get his money back again, nor does he get for it any visible or tangible benefit; but he obtains security against ruin, and consequent peace of mind. He upon whom the contingency does fall, gets all that those whom fortune has exempted from it have lost in hard money, and is thus enabled to sustain an event which would otherwise overwhelm him."

The rules of Friendly Societies prescribe duties of the officers, time and place of meeting, &c.; there are of course certain differences, but the general purpose may be stated thus:—

Rule I.—The object of this society is to assure to persons between the ages of twenty-one and fifty-five, who may become members thereof,—

1st. An allowance, not exceeding 20*s*. per week, during sickness, until the age of 70.

2nd. An allowance not exceeding in the whole £2. per month, from and after the ages of 55, 60, 65, or 70, as may be previously agreed on, to continue during life; and,

3rd. A payment at death, not exceeding £20.

The contributions are in nearly all cases paid monthly, and vary according to age. The general scale of some societies has been that 20*s*. per week in sickness up to the age of 70, may be obtained by any one beginning at 21, and paying regularly 2*s*. 1½*d*. per month; at 28, the sum required would be 2*s*. 6*d*.; at 43, 4*s*. 1*d*., and so on in proportion. Ten or fifteen shillings would cost not more than one-half, or three-fourths of these amounts.

Owing to ill-founded calculations, a number of Friendly Societies whose scale of contributions is similar to that abovementioned, instead of being a benefit have been a loss. Mr. Neison, a good authority on this subject, observes:—

"Under a scientific and amply developed system, these societies would be calculated, in a few years, to completely remove the cause of nearly all that poverty, distress, and misery, which haunt our manufacturing towns, and fill our workhouses with the working-classes of the country; but owing to the imperfect and unstable foundation on which they are at present built, instead of being a help and support to a poor man, they involve him in those difficulties for which he might otherwise have provided. On becoming a member of such a society, he reasonably looks forward to it as a support for his declining years, and a protection during periods of sickness and disease; but ultimately, at the very time when assistance is required, he discovers that the society has been formed on a ruinous plan, that the increasing years and infirmities of its members have absorbed all its funds, and that those surviving must be thrown destitute on the parish as a public charity. It may seem strange, that they should endure even for a year or two; but if the amount of sickness be examined, and the early age at which members generally enter be borne in mind, it will appear, that they may survive at least twenty-five or thirty years before their insecurity may become evident to an ordinary observer. Members are generally satisfied, in the first periods of a society, to find that the income has exceeded the expenditure, and left a respectable balance ; losing sight of the great accumulations which are necessary to meet the future liabilities incidental to their increasing years and infirmities. As a society advances, its income will invariably, in connection with a given number of members entering at a particular age, decrease with the increase of its expenditure. Suppose a society to commence with a given number of members, all thirty-five years of age,—in twenty-five years afterwards, the income from those members, through the deaths that take place in that period, will have decreased to seven-tenths of its original amount, while its expenditure on sickness will have trebled, and the members be fast approaching a time of life at which the expenditure will be ten times the original sum. This is a state of things for which the contributions of a society should make ample provision ; but, unfortunately, few have so considered the subject as to protect themselves against such vicissitudes."

Some societies engage to pay £1. per week during sickness up to the age of 70, £13. a-year after that age, and £10. at death, to any one, who, commencing at 35, pays annually £1. 11*s.* 5*d.* ; but to be fully able to realize this promise the contribution should be £2. 7*s.* 9½*d.* to secure the £1. only, and to obtain the three sums would demand £3. 7*s.* yearly. There are of course exceptions : all societies are not established on false principles ; but as Mr. Neison shows, the prevalent error is in calculating too low. To begin at 35 and get £13. a-year at 70, £18. 10*s.* ought to be paid, yet some societies charge so low as £8. 11*s.* ; others, £12. 2*s.* ; others again, £14. 14*s.* The error is a most distressing one as the consequences appear when a man is too old to repair it. Mr. Neison mentions the Odd Fellows as most unfair and fatal in their calculation of entry-money and subscription, making too little difference between the age of eighteen and thirty-five, and he is justly severe on the waste in expenses of management, and the opposition manifested to improvement. He states, also, that the Rechabites and Foresters are open to the same objections.

It is, besides, as essential to know how to invest the money paid in to the best advantage, as to base the calculations on a correct table of mortality, for "the success of every Friendly Society, and other institution, dealing in life contingencies, depends in a great measure on the proper investment of its funds." According to Mr. Neison the most fatal mistakes have been made with the "deferred annuities," that is, a sum paid monthly or annually at a certain age. In most cases, the calculations have provided for a much smaller number of annuitants than would actually be alive at the respective ages. Of 100 persons entering a Friendly Society at thirty years of age, thirty-three only would be provided for, while forty-seven would reach the age of seventy. "The melancholy spectacle which such a state of things would produce can be readily imagined. Supposing, that at the present time there are only one million of members of Friendly Societies, (which is much under the correct estimate), whose average age is about thirty, and presuming that the terms for deferred annuities are graduated according to the erroneous practice, 470,000 of those persons would attain the age of seventy, and nearly one-third would be without any provision for old age. This is only one of the many evils connected with the present condition of Friendly Societies ; and although its visitation be more remote, the awful consequences of such a calamity, like every other evil of procrastination, will be irreparable."

From a return made in 1833, it appeared that there were nearly 20,000 Friendly Societies in Great Britain. A number of these have since perished, others have not complied with the regulations of the act, and by investing money improperly have suffered loss. This consequence is the more to be regretted, because, as Mr. Neison says, the members of Friendly Societies live longer than other people, "no doubt, the result of their simple and uniform habits of life, and the more regular and natural physical exercises to which they are habituated." We must not be understood as condemning all societies, we wish only to put people on their guard, let them make careful and diligent inquiry before they part with their money, and on no account have any thing to do with a society whose rules have not been certified by the barrister. It must be remembered however, that the barrister's certificate only places the society on a proper legal footing, so far as regards the security of its investments, and enforcement of its rules on its members; it is no guarantee whatever for the correctness of the calculations on which the society is founded. We shall in future numbers explain further on this subject.

COTTAGE FARMER'S CALENDAR.

BY MARTIN DOYLE—JULY.

The Field.—Either the stone turnip, or *Trifolium incarnatum*, may be sown after the wheat crop, if it be lifted in an early season. A light ploughing and harrowing (or hoeing) will sufficiently clear the ground of stubbles and weeds. The seeds then are to be sown, and covered by a light seed-harrow. If the ground be in good condition, the additional crops thus obtained will amply repay for their labour, the part under turnips will be cleared off early in the spring for Barley, and *Trifolium incarnatum*, after supplying a very valuable green food in the summer, will be cleared away in time for a turnip crop. Hoe all the root-crops that require thinning, and clean and loosen the ground about the roots. For this purpose a three-pronged fork will be found useful. Fill up from the seedling-bed, or from the thinnings of the hoed crops (if the plants be stout enough for transplanting), whatever vacancies there may be in the main crops; taking care to loosen the earth deeply and perfectly for them, and to manure and water, as directed last month. The intervals between the late potato plants should be kept very clean and loose, and only a very slight moulding should be given to them if the soil be shallow; because by removing earth from between the drills, and laying it on the elevated parts, the roots are deprived of so much earth, and the top of the drill does not need it, or needs it in much lesser degree. In ordinary cases much earthing is not beneficial to potatos; if the spade or fork be sufficiently used for loosening the earth in the intervals between the drills, this is all they now require. In lands liable to the lodgment of water, earthing is, however, quite necessary, to form furrows for removing it; but land, so circumstanced, is very unfit for the potato, or indeed any other cultivated crop. Turnips are decidedly injured by having their bulbs earthed up. They, on the contrary, require to be freed from the adhesion of earth to the bulb above the roots.

The value of clover and lucerne is now being experienced; " cut and come again," is their motto. A top dressing of ashes, soot, or of lime and earth mixed, or a watering from the tank will stimulate them greatly. On them now depends the collection of solid and liquid manure. It has been calculated that the liquid manure saved from each cow is worth eight shillings a-year, and that the liquid manure of six cows is sufficient for an acre of land, without the addition of any other substance. How much better then is it at the present day to keep cows, sheep and pigs, (all which give a return to the soil for what they consume of its productions in manures, and produce a money profit sufficiently high, from milk, butter and meat,) than to grow corn for the *market*. It is worth remembering in these times, that in Belgium, noted for its admirable husbandry, wheat has been long considered as of less value than flax, hemp, colza roots, and clover, and only to be cultivated as a means of supplying the farmer's establishment with bread, and for the sake of the straw. But when straw runs short—as it will if there be only enough of grain sown for domestic purposes, and the fattening of pigs and poultry,—rushes heath, ferns, damaged hay, &c., and sea-sand, are in many cases substitutes easily attainable for bedding the cattle; and if these fail, Mr. Huxtable's boarded floors, with the economical etceteras recommended by him, may supply the deficiency.

Kitchen Garden.—Sow Fulham, Nonpareil or Battersea cabbage-seed for use in the next year. Transplant broccoli and cabbage-plants as directed last month. Earth-up celery, but not before the plants are well and vigorously grown, for their growth depends, in a great degree, upon the healthy action of the leaves; if these then be deprived of air and light by a rampart of earth pressing against them, they become diseased and powerless. The crowns of the plants, in particular, should be always left free. Much injury is done to celery by premature and excessive earthing, whereas a few weeks of close earthing sufficiently effects the object of blanching. The longer this operation is postponed the better. The earthing of celery in single or double rows is easy enough, nothing more being necessary than to apply the mould gradually, when in a dry and pulverized state, without touching the heart of the plant. But when the plants are in rows crosswise, fifteen inches apart, and six inches from plant to plant, the earthing up is to be executed thus; "two pieces of board are used of the same length as the width of the bed, placing one along each row, and filling between them, lifting the boards out carefully, and proceeding with the next row, always taking care not to add too much soil at a time."* A rich, light, and rather peaty soil is the best for celery. Give abundant air to cucumbers, and remember that one soft, genial shower is better for them than any artificial watering. Perhaps it may not be amiss to state, that in watering melon or cucumber plants, the water should be supplied to the roots alone; by taking the rose off the watering-pot, and making holes at the upper side of the bed, the water can be poured in so as to moisten the roots without touching the leaves, flowers, or setting-fruit, as the case may be. Break down the necks of onions that are sufficiently ripe, in order to improve the bulbs. Propagate kitchen herbs by slips.

Fruit Garden. — Continue to plant out strawberries, which more than any other fruit, require constant renewing. Some growers renew them every year. Leave from eighteen inches to two feet between the rows according to the nature of the plant and the condition of the soil. The pine will succeed in shallow soil. The Alpine is the quickest bearer, and the only kind which will bear fruit from seed the same year in which it has been sown, but it is said to fail after bearing two years. No kind should be left unrenewed longer than three years. Ashes are found to be the best manure for strawberries.

Flower Garden. — Pot late annuals for windows, and lay them in a shady place. You may still layer carnations, which with all their tribe succeed best in calcareous soil: pot the rooted ones by twos and threes, then protect them for the winter within doors or in a frame. Prick out early pipings of pinks, and shift auriculas into fresh pots for next year's bloom. Remove only as much of the old ball as can be done without injuring the roots, and put charcoal at the bottom of the pots, which should then be placed on tiles or boards, to prevent the entrance of worms. You may propagate auriculas by taking offsets from them, and setting them in pots a size or two less than those designed for the flowering plants. Shift also crysanthemums into pots for flowering late in December. Take cuttings of geraniums, verbenas, calceolarias. Put out Brompton stocks for flowering next year. Pot the cuttings of geraniums that have struck early, and lay a coat of moss on the surface to retain moisture.

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* *Paxton's Cottage Calendar.*

THE GOAT.

It is a curious fact, that although the sheep and the goat are to our view so distinct in formation, naturalists have found it difficult to point out precisely the differences in their physical conformation. One breed of goats in particular, (known in Wales) without horns, and white, is said to be distinguishable from the sheep only by its hairy fleece and indications of a beard. Some naturalists have distinguished goats and sheep from each other more by their tempers and dispositions, which are so manifestly opposite in some particulars, that our Saviour selected them as representatives of the good and the bad among mankind at the supposed day of judgment, when God shall "separate the one from the other, as a shepherd divideth his sheep from the goats: and he shall set the sheep at the right hand and the goats on the left."

There are many varieties of the wild goat, of which the kind found in the mountains of Abyssinia and Upper Egypt is supposed to be the wild goat mentioned in the books of Deuteronomy and Job. Some of the most highly prized varieties of the goat species, are those of Cashmere, in the North-west of India—where several thousand looms are constantly at work, weaving the beautiful Cashmere shawls. The soft silky and curling quality of the hair of the wild goat, now in various parts of the East, were equally remarkable in the days of Isaac. We find in Genesis xvii. that Isaac was so deceived by the softness of the hair of the goat which Rebecca had put on the hands and neck of Jacob, that the blind old man supposed it was the natural hair of the body of his eldest son.

In the catalogue of offerings for the tabernacle, we read, Exodus xxv. of "goat's hair" being presented, with "blue and purple, and scarlet and fine linen." Travellers inform us that the hair of the wild goat of the East equals silk in beauty, and curls like the hair of women: it is combed off, not shorn. It has long been a principal article of trade at Angora and Aleppo. Some domesticated goats have been brought from Asia to this country and to the south of France; but whatever chance they may have of preserving the original excellence of their hair in the latter country, there is little doubt that it would degenerate in the hilly parts of Great Britain and Ireland, where a rough weather-proof fleece is so natural and necessary to the animal.

Whether the common domesticated goat be derived from the wild goat of the rocks mentioned in the Old Testament, or be itself an original variety, which is more probable, is not worth discussion here. The common breed of the British Islands is we believe as prolific and productive of milk as any other kind. Some of them attain a great size, and when of full age and with good management, will give from one to three pints of milk daily during ten months of the year, and sometimes twin kids in the year. The flesh of the kid is delicious, provided the little innocent has not been stinted in its allowance of milk, being less luscious and more delicate in flavour than that of the lamb as usually fattened for the market; but if it be a mere framework of bones it is hardly worth roasting. Whatever may have been the quality of the "savoury venison" of the patriarchal days, the flesh of an old goat of modern times is certainly tough and unpalatable; but very old mutton is tough also. The flesh of a fat young female goat is decidedly good, and that of one somewhat advancing in years, is quite eatable with proper preparation. Pennant has recorded, what indeed any person who has entered into the houses of the peasantry of the Welsh Highlands knows to be fact, that the haunches of the goat are frequently salted and dried, and supply all the uses of bacon to the peasantry, who call it *cock yr wden*, or hung venison. The meat of an emasculated male goat, six or seven years old, which is called *hyfr*, is reckoned the best, being generally very sweet and fat. This makes an excellent pasty, goes under the name of rock venison, and is little inferior to that of the deer."

But it is for its milk that the female goat is most prized. It has been called the poor man's cow, and it well deserves a higher degree of consideration than it usually receives from us. The peasantry of the South of France have had such experience of the worth of goats in their household and rural economy, that 25,000 goats are maintained in one district, that of *Mont d'Or*, near Lyons, where celebrated cheese is made from their milk; more than 400,000 goats are kept in France, (principally in the southern departments,) which number compared with the number of pigs in the same kingdom is as one to three.

Now pigs are decidedly more valuable and important to the cottager, (whose interests we have especially at heart) and if the question were, 'which shall be kept, pigs or goats?' our answer would be 'pigs;'—but this is not the question; such is not the alternative, for he can keep both—or at least he can keep a goat in the case in which he has no suitable food for a pig, and in every case, without depriving his pig of any portion of its proper food. Our high hills—commons, and furze brakes, and full-grown woods, would support an incalculably greater number of goats than are maintained even in the wildest and most profitless parts of Ireland and Scotland. The weeds that grow by the wayside and in the fields, the waste of a garden, turnip or potato peelings, heath, indifferent hay, will feed the goat, which readily eats any vegetable offered to it. The goat will eat herbs which even the sheep rejects, unless it be almost starving, and even feed on the common hemlock, which is poisonous to the cow. Wherever a green leaf is to be had, the goat may be supported, but in a cultivated country, that leaf must be plucked for the goat—the goat must not be allowed to ramble and pull leaves for itself—else it will destroy shrubs and young trees at a fearful rate—and jump over any fences to crop whatever it may fancy. Except on wild land then, goats are an intolerable nuisance if at large, and are therefore the subjects of very heavy fines under the trespass acts: but as no animal bears confinement better, and can be easily led by a string to proper feeding-places, or tethered on some common, or field, or brake, where it can do no mischief, it may surely be kept without interfering in any degree with the claims, wants, or privileges of the pig.

A goat is a harmless and playful pet for children, and is often trained to draw them in a little cart. Even the stern soldier takes pleasure in the gambols and docility of the goat. Mr. Cobbett, who was a soldier in his earlier years, mentions in his "Cottage Economy," that when he was in America, many goats *belonged to his regiment*, and went about with it on shipboard and everwhere else, and that they were never fed,—they picked up grass and leaves in summer, and lived in winter on whatever scraps were thrown out from the soldiers' huts. We may suppose, however, that they were pets with many kind-hearted men, who never let them suffer from serious hunger. There is at least one gallant regiment, we believe, which has the goat for its "badge," and is always accompanied by one or more of these companionable and spirited creatures which are (in the male sex,) so emblematical of courage, hardihood, and endurance.

Every cottager almost, now-a-days, drinks tea, —or what is called tea—though frequently he cannot procure milk with it. What a luxury then to him and his little ones would be the milk of a goat or two! This milk, besides a kid (or perhaps twins) from each of them every year, would surely be a very beneficial recompense for the inexpensive and easily-procured food which would support them. The quality of goat's milk, too, is good. Invalids know that it is excellent: its lightness on the stomach and nutritiveness make it suitable to them. The hair, skin, fat and horns of the goat are useful for many purposes. The hair is convertible into wigs for judges and barristers; the skin is used for making gloves; the horns for knife-handles and snuff-boxes, and the suet for candles. If the skin be not stripped of the hair, it is a capital material for a working man's winter coat or for a gentleman's shooting jacket. Vast numbers of men wear such coats in France, (as some of the Scotch wear deer-skin dresses handsomely prepared) as a certain protection against rain and cold. It is not worn by them, however, as the celebrated Brien O'Lynn wore his sheep-skin, viz., "with the woolly side in," —for, its refreshing coolness in summer, but with the hair *outwards*. It throws off water as the feathers of a duck would discharge it, and is a very durable garment also. Goat-skins also are much used in the north of Scotland as a protection to carpets, in the same way that matting is used in England.

VARIETIES.

Gardening and Education.—A boy who can manage a little garden, who takes pleasure in watching the seed he has sown, who plucks out every weed as soon as it appears, and who prides himself on the fruit and vegetables which he can place on his father's table, is more advanced in his education than he who can only read and write, however well he may do both.—*Penny Cyclopædia.*

Railway Engines.—The life of a locomotive is estimated at one hundred and fifty thousand miles; the value of a first-rate engine, £2,500. It follows that every mile it runs costs just four-pence.—*Builder.*

Hawk and Weasel.—Recently, in the north, a hawk pounced upon a weasel, and was carrying off his prize in triumph, when the bird was observed to spread out his wings, and both came gradually to the earth. The hawk was dead, but the weasel, after turning round once or twice, began deliberately to make a meal on the dead body of his enemy.

A Ploughman's Appetite.—A Scotchman having hired himself to a farmer, had a cheese set down before him that he might help himself. The master said to him, 'Sandy, you take a long time to breakfast.' 'In troth, master,' answered he, 'a cheese o' this size is na sae soon eaten as ye may think.'

Physical Force.—The less of physical force we use—the less, to take an expressive word, we scold our children—the more order and quiet we shall commonly secure. I have seen a family where a single word, or a look even, would allay a rising storm. The gentle but firm method is the best security for domestic peace.—*Rev. A. B. Muzzey.*

The Gourd and the Palm.—A gourd wound itself around a lofty palm, and in a few weeks climbed up to its very top. 'How old may'st thou be?' asked the new comer. 'About a hundred years,' was the answer. 'A hundred years and no taller! Only look, I have grown as tall as you in fewer days than you count years.' 'I know that well,' replied the palm, 'every summer of my life a gourd has climbed up round me, as proud as thou art, and as short-lived as thou wilt be.'

True Spirit of Liberty.—Condemn no man for not thinking as you think. Let every one enjoy the full and free liberty of thinking for himself. Let every man use his own judgment, since every man must give an account of himself to God. Abhor every approach, in any kind or degree, to the spirit of persecution. If you cannot reason or persuade a man into the truth, never attempt to force him into it. If love will not compel him to come, leave him to God, the Judge of all.—*John Wesley.*

Returning Energy.—Dr. Kitchiner, to show how the strength of man may be diminished by indulging indolence, mentions the following ludicrous fact:—'Meeting a gentleman who had lately returned from India, to my inquiry after his health, he replied, 'Why, better—better thank ye; I think I begin to feel some symptoms of a little British energy. Do you know that the day before yesterday I was in such high spirits, and felt so strong, that I actually put on one of my stockings by myself.'

A Smart Lad.—A few years ago a little fellow was taken by his father to a carpenter to be bound apprentice to him, after the fashion of those times. In settling the business, the master, who was one of the stiff kind, said, 'Well, boy, I suppose you can eat most anything, can't you? I always make my boys live on what they don't like.' 'Then, I love everything but mince-pie and apple-pie!' was the boy's instant reply.

Some have sluices to their conscience, and can keep them open, or shut them as occasion requireth.

There are comforters by profession, to whom nothing worse could happen than that others should be consoled.

AN IRRITABLE MAN.

He lies like a hedgehog rolled up the wrong
  way,
Tormenting himself with his prickles.

—*Hood.*

The Corner.

Domestic Love: its Religious Tendency.—We lay up treasure in heaven when we cherish the domestic charities. "They sin who tell us love can die," and they also err grievously, who suppose that natural affections tend to wean us from God. Far otherwise! they develop virtues of the existence of which in our own hearts we should else be unconscious; and binding us to each other, they bind us also to our common parent.—*Southey's Letters.*

Lying.—Do not let us lie at all. Do not think of one falsity as harmless, and another as slight, and another as unintended. Cast them all aside. They may be light and accidental, but they are an ugly soot from the smoke of the pit for all that, and it is better that our hearts should be swept clean of them, without over care as to which is largest or blackest. Speaking truth is like writing fair, and comes only by practice; it is less a matter of will than of habit; and I doubt if any occasion can be trivial which permits the formation and practice of such a habit.

HOPE.

According to an old Grecian myth or fable all the afflictions and evils which befal mankind were once fast shut up in a box where they could do no mischief; but one day the lid of the box being accidentally opened, out they all swarmed, and spread themselves over the world where they have ever since remained. It seemed that thereafter all people must be reduced to misery and despair, yet it so happened that Hope was also shut up in the same box with the others, and came forth the last with her bright and smiling looks, as much as to say, 'Don't be disheartened if my box-companions do torment you, for I shall always be at hand to cheer and comfort you.'

Whatever may be the case in other parts of the world we, here in England, do not believe in this fable as the ancient Greeks did. We do not take it for granted that evils and miseries are the work of a number of invisible beings, who go up and down in the world finding pleasure in tormenting mankind. No, we know better than that: we now understand that in nearly every instance the evils of life are of our own making or of our own seeking; but we still talk of Hope as a something which visits us from time to time, and nearly always for good.

Hope is said to dwell constantly in the human heart; scarcely ever does she forsake her post; and what a blessing attends her presence! Troubles oft-times come upon us; friends perhaps forsake us; a son or a daughter takes to perverse courses; worldly affairs go wrong; death robs us of some one dear to us, and for a while life and all thereunto belonging appears a hopeless blank, a scorched desert without a tree or a fountain, and the bitterness of desolation overwhelms us. But when our thought has become calm, when we have meditated for a space in the quietude of our chamber, or during a walk in the cool twilight of a summer's evening, then we begin to hear once more the still small voice of Hope, which little by little speaks more clearly, and utters glad consolations. And even as the song of the lark increases in delight as the winged warbler mounts upwards, so do our spirits rise with Hope, and the more we entertain her the sweeter will be her whisperings, and the brighter her promises.

Every virtue, as is often said, has its antagonist vice. The sun is sometimes eclipsed; sunshine and blossoms give place to frost and snow, so is there a *true* and a *false* Hope, and it is worth a little pains to learn how to distinguish one from the other. We think it advisable now and then when people knock at our doors, to look out at the window, and if they have a suspicious appearance we do not let them in, we keep the door shut against them. So we should do well to be watchful when we open our hearts to the visitations of Hope. We might judge whether we were admitting an impostor or not by asking ourselves the question, 'Is the Hope that now waits to come in such a one as my conscience approves, as I should not be ashamed to acknowledge in the face of the world, and before the eye of God?' If the answer is No, there is nothing for it but to keep the door shut.

The degrees of Hope are as various as individuals are numerous. There is the hope of the merchant, of the artisan, of the student, of the parent, of the child, of the lover, of the maiden, of the rich, of the poor, of the wise, of the foolish. And too often a desire for change is confounded with hope; some people fancy that because they are dissatisfied with the present they are hoping for the future. Real hope has generally a fixed aim, and a sustained effort; and happy is he whose hope is set on some worthy object. Then again, one hopes for wealth, another for high rank, another for fame, another for large possessions. The industrious man hopes in his industry, the good man in his integrity, the humble in his humility; and even the wrongful can hope. But we are told that "the hope of the hypocrite shall perish."

To hear some people talk you would almost believe that the story about the old Grecian box was true, except that Hope never came out of it; and even if it depended on themselves, these dismal-hearted people would never open the lid to let her escape. They don't want to be happy. If you ask such people if they are honest, if they are truthful, if they are diligent in business, they always answer, 'We hope we are,' which shows that they are in doubt on the question; they don't like to say no, they don't like to say yes; they are neither cold nor hot, and little to be counted on at a pinch. We trust that all who read these lines will come out of this lukewarm state, this mixed condition of weakness and despair, and live henceforth with a well-grounded assurance in their heart. Do we not know that it was Hopeful who produced the key which unlocked the doors of Doubting Castle, and liberated the Pilgrim from the bondage of giant Despair? We would counsel every one to take thought and find out what is really worth hoping for, and then to go on with a lively and vigorous spirit; not rashly sanguine, nor weakly hesitating, but with the Hope

"That like the glimmering taper's light,
Adorns and cheers the way,
And still as darker grows the night,
Emits a brighter ray."

THE FACTORY GIRL'S THRIFT.

A TALE FOR THE UNMARRIED.

CHAPTER I.

SOME thirty years ago, there resided in one of our manufacturing towns, an excellent and intelligent Sunday school teacher, whom we will call Miss Woods. Her intercourse with her scholars on the Sunday was of course confined to giving them religious instruction, which however she took care always to turn to practical account—she tried to impress on her scholars that the more they knew the better they ought to do; that they should be more obedient, more faithful, more kind than children who are left in ignorance of their duty to God and man.

Miss Woods was also desirous of teaching her scholars such things as would be of advantage to them in their common affairs—a branch of knowledge in which some very clever young people are lamentably deficient.

Most of the girls in Miss Woods' class were, or were likely to be employed in the factories. This she knew would necessarily take them very much out of the way of domestic knowledge. She thought of the time, when after spending some years in a factory, they would form connexions in life, and become wives and mothers; and she could not bear to think of their being destitute of knowledge and aptitude for the duties which it would then be very important that they should be able efficiently to discharge. She therefore kindly arranged that the girls should pass one or two evenings every week at her house, when she taught writing and arithmetic to those who needed that sort of instruction; and needle-work and other useful matters to all—the girls brought their materials, and she showed them how to cut out and make or mend what they required. While they were busy at their needle-work, Miss Woods would talk to them about other useful subjects; telling them how to cook, or clean, or nurse, and endeavour to cultivate thrifty notions and industrious habits about common things in general.

It happened one evening that the girls were speaking of an event that had recently occurred—of a young person, whom they all knew, being plunged into distress and wretchedness by an imprudent marriage; and it happened too, whether by design or accident, that the copy set for that evening's exercise, was the common saying—"Before you marry, be sure of a home wherein to tarry." 'A very good maxim indeed!' observed Harriet Stokes, one of the elder girls, 'it would have been better for poor Fanny Green if she had minded it.' 'But how *can* we be sure of it?' objected Jane Burton, 'we cannot know till we try. We can be sure of a home at first if we wont marry without one; but we can't be sure that we shall keep it, can we Miss Woods?'

'Every thing in this world is uncertain, and we may be deceived or disappointed; or trouble may come upon us, which no human sagacity could foresee or prevent; yet, perhaps, more than half the examples we see of wretched poverty in families might be traced to want of forethought or want of thrift. When people come into trouble through their own folly, it would be cruel and useless to upbraid them with the past. What is done cannot be recalled—though, if trouble leads them to reflect, and to pursue an opposite course, it will be just availing themselves of the only hope that remains of bettering their condition. Experience keeps a dear school, but valuable lessons of wisdom are often learnt there; and when persons, who have long pursued the way of error and folly change their course, even under abounding disadvantages and discouragements, the change of conduct sometimes results in an unlooked for change of circumstances; 'tis a long lane that has no turning, and a long night that never yields to day. However it may be with those who have gone wrong, it is a very proper use to make of the troubles of others, for those who are beginning their course to avoid the like errors.'

'Now most of you girls have known Fanny Green several years,' added Miss Woods.

'Oh yes,' said Maria Day, 'she has worked at the mill with my sister for ten years and more.'

'And,' remarked Lucy Harris, 'they have been our next door neighbours as long as I can remember.'

'Well, I dare say you know enough of her to be aware that as a clever and industrious workwoman, and the times having been favourable, she has had constant employ and good wages for years past.'

'Yes, that she has I know—for she and my sister have always worked together, and taken the same money.'

'When she was earning so many shillings a week, and had only herself to keep, she could not need spend so much—she might have saved half, and yet been sufficiently fed and clothed. How much should you suppose she laid by?'

'Oh! Miss, I should not think she laid by any thing; I am sure my sister does not, who takes the same money—more than that, they have always had ever so much to pay every week at the ticket shop, for things that they have taken up on trust.'

'Do you suppose her husband had got any thing before-hand?'

'No, Miss, that is not at all likely—the things for the wedding are owing for now, and that is what brought on this trouble.'

'Now, suppose that instead of buying so many new gowns and shawls and bonnets, poor Fanny had been so wise as to put five shillings a-week in the savings' bank! Do you not think she might have done so, and yet have had every thing in the way of dress needful for comfort and respectable appearance?'

The girls agreed that she might have done it—and they began to reckon up how many new dresses she had had within a year to their certain knowledge.

'Well, we will suppose she had done without so many things, and had laid by five shillings a week for ten years.'

'But, Miss,' interposed Maria Day, 'she could not have done that—she has not taken such high wages for so long as ten years, she was only eighteen when she was married.'

If she could not have begun with five shillings, she might have begun with two shillings or one. Even sixpence a-week in time amounts to a sum not to be despised—besides, if Fanny had gone on earning and saving a few years longer, till she had been ten years saving five shillings a-week, she might still have been married all in good time, and she would then have possessed more than one hundred and thirty pounds to set up housekeeping with.'

'A hundred and thirty pounds! Oh dear ma'am, what a deal of money! It seems scarcely possible.'

'And yet it is quite true. I should like to impress on you girls the difference there is between spending all you earn, while you have only yourselves to keep, (perhaps with help from your parents in doing even that) and by a little prudent self-denial, raising a fund for your future comfort. Besides, what a prudent young woman saves from her own expenses is not all the advantage derived—she learns self-respect and consideration—she does not act without thought—she is not likely to throw herself away upon a worthless spendthrift; and if she takes up with a prudent steady young man, her example will stimulate and encourage him to act in the same manner. He will take an honest pleasure in matching her savings by his own; and so between them they may get wherewithal to set them up in business, or at least to furnish a comfortable habitation. Such young people do carry out the saying—and, 'before they marry, make sure of a home wherein to tarry.' Prudent care in youth often lays the foundation for prosperity in future life; but it rarely happens that those who marry unthriftily better their condition afterwards.'

'One of our most respected magistrates, I need not scruple to tell it to you, for Mr. and Mrs. Watson have often told it themselves for the benefit of young people.'

'What, Mr. Watson at the great house in the park, ma'am?'

'Yes. Mr. Watson entered on commercial life with only a few pounds, the fruit of his youthful industry and care. The object of his early choice was like-minded. They loved and trusted each other well enough to wait till they could marry and settle in comfort. Their standard of comfort was rather high for young people who had only their own labour to look to. They resolved not to marry till their joint savings were sufficient to purchase a habitation and furnish it. They were actually in treaty for the purchase of one of those small dwellings in Floyd's-row, then newly built, when the young man's employer offered him a confidential post in their establishment, which required him to reside on the premises—thus, as the young couple were provided with good apartments rent free, half the amount of their joint savings was sufficient comfortably to furnish their dwelling. The remainder of their little capital they were allowed to invest in the business. That small sum, accompanied as it was by intelligence, diligence, fidelity, and general business-habits in its possessor, proved the foundation of extensive and lasting prosperity. The story has often been related to young people with this remark—If in prospect of marriage one party saves enough to buy a house, and the other enough to furnish it, they start fair in life with a good prospect of success.'

'But, buy a house! that seems such a very great thing to do; very few young people could save money enough for that,' said the girls.

'Many young people squander more than enough to do it. Some young people actually have done it, and many more might, if in addition to being industrious and careful of their property, they were content to wait a little longer before they married, and go on earning and saving with a fixed determination to settle comfortably and respectably, rather than hastily. There is nothing, for instance, to hinder you girls from making for yourselves a resolution of this kind and beginning to act upon it from this very day.'

'Time enough yet, ma'am, there is ne'er a one of us over fourteen.'

'Quite time to begin Maria, if you wish to carry out what I said poor Fanny Green might have done. It is much easier to form a good habit, or carry out a good resolution early than late. Every year from your age, the temptations to break through it will increase; and the longer you have adhered to it, the greater will be your strength to resist them. If every one of you should begin from this day to save something weekly towards setting up housekeeping, and deny yourselves some present gratification with that object; and if moreover you should form a resolution and keep to it, that you would not marry until you had secured the means of decency and comfort at starting, I have no doubt at all, that whenever the time might come for you to settle, and through the whole of your future life, you would look back upon this conversation with satisfaction. But it is time for you to put up your work. You will perhaps think of what we have been saying, and talk it over again between yourselves. I shall be very glad if it leads to any good result.'

In the course of a week, every one of Miss Woods' girls, as they were called, had entered their names at the savings' bank, and many were the calculations of how rapidly their deposits were to accumulate, and how the total was to be ultimately disposed of; whether the dwelling should be in the town for the convenience of business and shopping, or a little way in the country for the benefit of pure air and pleasant walks. Whether or not there were any speculations as to the lad who should join in the intended purchase and possession must remain a matter of uncertainty. Speculations of this kind do enter the minds of young people at a very early age, especially where great numbers of them are brought together. It is a pity it should be so, at a period of life when their attention might with much greater advantage be directed to other objects, and when the feelings are so apt to outrun the judgment that a false step is often taken which embitters and degrades the whole of future life.

Among the young depositors in the savings' bank, there were but few who persevered. Those who had planned most largely, and talked most loudly, were the first to decline. Their resolution lasted only just till they were tempted to break it. A splendid shawl ticketed with "positively the newest fashion—selling off at a tremendous sacrifice"—or the persuasions of an itinerant jeweller, with the assurance that his trinkets would at any time sell as old metal for the price at which he offered them, easily convinced them that it would 'be a pity to let such an opportunity slip'—that the few shillings required to purchase these valuable articles, would go but a very little way towards purchasing, or even furnishing a house; and besides that, they could soon begin again to save, and replace what they had removed; that it could not be of much consequence, whether the beginning of their savings was a month or two earlier or later, &c. &c. It need scarcely be said that the result of this reasoning was—farewell to the savings' bank. There were however some of the girls who did continue to deposit their weekly savings:—Maria Day stood firm against the temptations of finery, and the taunts of her elder sister, who predicted that she would live and die a miser or an old maid. She went on for two or three years accumulating a nice little sum of money—and at the same time acquiring what was still more valuable, cleverness in preparing her own garments and care in using them. The desire to spare needless expense, stimulated her to study this kind of thrift; and no one could with truth say, that Maria was not as well dressed as her sister, who was at the expense of putting out all her work—who scorned the idea of wearing an inferior article for the sake of making a better one last longer, and whose expenses were barely bounded by the extent of her earnings. But Maria, though she so far went on well, did not go on as far as she intended; and hence the results were not as satisfactory as they otherwise might have been. There was Jem Dawson, a smart good-looking lad, who somehow persuaded Maria against her own better judgment that she had been saving quite long enough, and that it was now high time to get married and enjoy the store. To be sure there was not enough to buy a house, or even to furnish one, and Jem had no savings of his own to add to it. But what of that? There were plenty of furnished lodgings to be had; and as they were both in full work, they could very well afford to rent a comfortable apartment, and it would not cost them more to live together than to live apart; indeed, Maria being such a handy girl, her skill and good management would effect a great saving in James's expenditure, and they should be able even to add to the little store; and, in short, James and Maria were married at about seventeen years of age. In less than a year, Maria found herself with an infant in her arms, unable to earn as she had been wont to do. As her weekly wage was essential to the weekly expenditure, there was no alternative between resuming her usual labour, or infringing on her little hoard, which had hitherto remained unbroken: the former was decided on. The little one was placed under the daily care of a nurse, and the young mother returned to her work at the factory. The babe, which had hitherto been healthy and thriving, soon began to droop and dwindle.

What could be the reason? 'No doubt it was about its teeth,' was the answer of the nurse, 'all children suffer at that time—there was nothing to be alarmed at, it would be better after a time.' But week after week passed on—no teeth made their appearance; the poor babe seemed rapidly pining to death. At length, contrary to the persuasions of the nurse, who declared that any skill beyond her own was quite unnecessary, the child was taken to a medical gentleman, who soon detected the cause of its illness in the want of proper attention, and the vain attempt to supply the want of maternal comfort by pernicious drugs. 'If you wish to save your child's life,' he said, 'you must remove it from the hands of a woman, who by taking care of a child, means no more than lulling it to sleep. You tell me she has the care of six or eight babes; and for the sake of gain, she would no doubt undertake the charge of ten times as many. But she is not worthy to be trusted with one. If this child is left with her, it will not long require any care. The only chance of saving it is to take care of it yourself.' So it was resolved, for the young parents were very fond of their babe, and earnestly desirous of saving its life, that factory work for the present should be given up by the mother; that they would strive hard to make the earnings of the father serve for their support, and that they would have recourse to their savings, rather than suffer their child to perish for want of proper care. The child improved, and its industrious and clever young mother sometimes gained a trifle by needle work, while the father persevered in earning as much as possible, and cheerfully denied himself every unnecessary expense. Still they were often driven to obtain a few shillings from the savings' bank, and they could not but anticipate that the account would at no very distant period be closed. While musing and consulting together on their circumstances, it occurred to them that the pay for furnished lodgings, made a great dip into the weekly income; and that however long they might continue to pay it, they would not thereby be acquiring any property of their own. They resolved, and regretted that they had not so resolved at first, to take part of a house unfurnished; to lay out their little hoard on a few indispensable articles of furniture, and to be content with them, however scanty and insufficient, until they should be able from time to time to add other conveniences. They were really an affectionate, industrious, and striving young couple, and one could but wish that their efforts might be crowned with success.

COD-LIVER OIL.

This material has come so extensively into use as a remedial agent, that some short account of it must be generally interesting. It is procured as its name implies from the livers of codfish. It is obtained from different species of cod, and by different processes, each fishery having a way of its own of distraining the oil from the livers. It is chiefly got from the common cod. The variety of methods of preparing it, the freshness or putrescency of the livers, and the kind of fish, combine to produce different descriptions of oil. There is a pale oil, a yellow oil, a reddish oil, a chestnut oil, and a brown oil. As the darkest coloured oils seem to be the product of livers considerably decayed, they are best fitted for the coarsest purposes, such as that they are put to by curriers: these oils have been long used in the dressing of leather. The most colourless kind of oil is from one particular species of fish, and does not seem the best. The oil which has a clear colour and a yellow or reddish tint, would seem to deserve the preference, though all the oils have proved serviceable as medicines. The article has been much adulterated, like every other conceivable commodity, and people have even been known to *manufacture* cod-liver oil out of cheap vegetable oils since the demand has somewhat gained ground on the supply.

In Newfoundland, the cods' livers are placed on spruce boughs well pressed down into a shallow tub with an aperture pierced through the bottom. The whole being placed in the sun, as the livers decay, the oil melts and runs through the hole into a vessel placed below to receive it. In Shetland, the livers are washed, and cut into small pieces; these are put into cold water, which is then boiled; and the oil skimmed from the surface. Near Edinburgh, the livers are boiled, and the oil is strained through canvas strainers containing sand. In Norway, a number of livers are put sometimes into a barrel having three openings, one over the other. From the topmost opening, a comparatively pure oil flows, and from the lowest of these apertures comes the coarsest specimen. One firm is said to import into Germany, from Norway, the product of twelve millions of livers in a year. The London wholesale druggist throws the Billingsgate livers into a vessel heated by steam, and ladles out the oil as it melts into a bag, through which it strains.

It would be difficult to say, when or where this oil was first used medicinally. It has long had a popular reputation as a remedy for rheumatism in the north of Europe. Old women in fishing-towns in Scotland, have long 'rubbed it in,' for what in these regions are called 'the pains.' In Holland, it has been celebrated as a cure for rickets. About ninety years ago, an old woman in Manchester —for Lancashire was one of the districts where it was favourably known—after bothering the doctors a good deal with her complaints, was recommended to try cod-liver oil. To make the matter sure, she not only 'rubbed it in,' but took it internally. She cured herself. This did not attract the particular attention of the physician who had attended her, till, on a second attack, a year after the first, she cured herself again, in the same way. For half a century or so afterwards, the oil had a great celebrity in the Manchester Infirmary for the cure of chronic (that is, old, or long-standing,) rheumatism.

Why did that celebrity not speedily extend itself in all directions, and why did it not endure in Manchester? For this reason, that though the oil cured cases of rheumatism, it was not an infallible specific. We have few or no specifics. There are various circumstances necessary to the growth of a plant, and there is a combination of circumstances at work generally to produce disease, or to assist nature to cure it. Cod-liver oil is the circumstance that is wanted for the human constitution sometimes, just as lime is occasionally wanted for the earth; but at other times cod-liver oil and lime, are not only not necessary, but even superfluous, or it may be injurious. It would be foolish to put a ban upon lime or chalk, because it was useless for this or that soil; so it was foolish, because the oil at length was found often to disappoint, to forego its use entirely.

The fame of the oil next came to us from Germany. In some parts there, when the people found themselves ill, their first proceeding was to take cod-liver oil, and if that failed to apply to the doctor as a last resource; just as the people in the Highlands are said to use whisky for every ailment. The medical profession was at length drawn to the consideration of the oil, its use has extended to and become common in this country, and it is now used extensively everywhere in certain diseases.

It has been of course the purpose of the profession to discriminate the circumstances under which it is useful and otherwise, and the result has been on the whole, as far as can be judged at present, in favour of the oil being a very valuable remedy. It is no doubt over-estimated; because the class of complaints, in which it is used, were and still are so difficult of cure, that anything like a remedy is hailed with a general acclamation. But still there is every reason to suppose that cod-liver oil, will remain to us a valuable auxiliary in the cure or alleviation of certain forms of human disease.

These forms of disease are chronic or long-standing, and therefore the oil requires to be taken for a length of time. They may be said to be disordered states of the constitution or habit. In the old complaint for which the remedy was so much renowned, rheumatism—it sometimes succeeds, and often fails. Perhaps it will turn out that the remedy is most effectual, if used before the rheumatic constitution is firmly established. In rickets, it has been eminently serviceable, and children by a little management get fond of the oil. But last, though not least, in all forms of scrofulous disease, its beneficial effects appear the most remarkable. Some are of opinion that it is only when rickets are connected with a scrofulous constitution, that the oil is serviceable in that disease. However that may be, rickets *are* generally connected with a scrofulous constitution. We are in fact, reduced to the conclusion, that it is as an agent against the scrofulous constitution that cod-liver oil is of the greatest importance. The scrofulous habit arises from some fault in the nutritive arrangements of the system. It is often hereditary. It displays itself in weakly and imperfectly nourished children—in diseases of the brain in infancy—in wasting from a disease of the glands within the belly—in diseases of the joints—in swellings of the glands of the neck—in consumption—and in some forms of skin disease. These remarks are made, merely to correct a popular error, about scrofula being something scabby. Scrofulous people are often remarkable for clear and beautiful skins. It is then in the various forms of scrofula, or *tubercular* disease, that cod-liver oil has been found so nourishing and remedial—in weak infants with large spaces between the bones of the head—in rickety children—in pot-bellied children—in glandular swellings—and lastly and pre-eminently in consumption.

But it is difficult to take the oil! It is nasty—particularly to an English palate. To a Russian, one can easily imagine, from what he has read of *his* dietary, that it would be far from unpalateable. We do not eat much oil in Britain—though it is said that in Shetland, it is sometimes substituted for butter, when that is scarce. Well, it is not so bad after all, when we have freed ourselves from the reminiscences of castor-oil. Delicate ladies have been known not to be able to take a teaspoonful without being sick, and who have nevertheless, by perseverance come to take it with a relish. It is apt to produce sickness on weak stomachs at first. The best plan is to begin with small quantities, and gradually increase them, and not to take it on an empty stomach. It may be taken in peppermint or any other aromatic water—in a little weak wine and water, or table-beer. Or, these beverages may be taken after it, to *cut* the oil in the mouth and take the taste away. Some people take a little powdered sugar in their mouth for this purpose, others orange juice, or raspberry vinegar. In some conditions of the body, the use of the oil is to be avoided; where there is derangement of the stomach; where there is no appetite at all; where there is diarrhœa. It would be impossible, however, to make the patient as wise as his doctor; and we will not attempt it. These few remarks, are simply intended to afford some correct information to the general reader, on a subject on which it is presumed he must feel somewhat curious.

ABOUT PIGEONS.

This extremely beautiful race of birds has been held in high estimation, both in ancient and modern times, as well for the pleasing amusement they afford, as for the profit to be derived from them, as articles of sale or of domestic consumption.

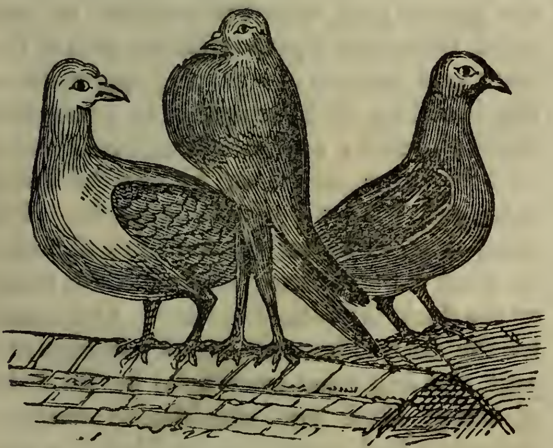
There are so many varieties of Pigeons that it will be scarcely worth while to enumerate them, it being more to our purpose to treat of those most useful to man, rather than of mere fancy breeds. There is no advantage in keeping the latter in preference to the common *house* or *dovecote* pigeon; although if a certain market could always be found, it might be profitable to raise fancy pigeons for sale.

We therefore advise those who intend to keep pigeons, not to trouble themselves about Carriers, Fan Tails, Pouters, Tumblers, &c., &c., as they will in general be found to be "more plague than profit;" but to confine their attention to the common pigeon, which has this recommendation, that it breeds oftenest, and attends best to its young.

It has been said that if pigeons be permitted to fly abroad to seek their food, little expense will be incurred for their keep, while the value of their young will be of some importance to the cottager. But this, although it may be a very *cheap* way to the owner of the pigeons, would not be very honest. It would be keeping them at the expense of others, for during the greater part of the year, they are able to procure their food from the fields, or from the stacks in the farm-yard. Neither would it be very profitable to the proprietor, if the farmer should exercise his privilege of shooting all pigeons found pillaging his produce, which the law entitles him to do.

It may be, and indeed *is* very often said, that 'the farmer will never miss what the pigeons take;' and thus because the robbery appears to be but trifling, and will never be missed, no harm is seen in it. But *real* honesty asks not whether it is much or little that is taken, or whether the fact be known or unknown, but acts simply on the golden rule, "*do unto others, as you would have others do unto you.*"

To prevent injustice to the tiller of the soil, those who keep pigeons must feed them regularly, and abundantly, a plan which so attaches them to their home, that it is often difficult to get them to fly abroad for air and exercise ; but entirely prevents those frequent losses from straying and by robbery, to which those who allow their pigeons to pilfer their neighbour's produce are so constantly subject.



Pigeon-house.—When many pigeons are to be kept, the best place is an empty chamber or garret, which is warm and dry, and where they can be open to observation. The space between the roof of a house and the ceiling of the upper chamber may be very well appropriated for this purpose. An opening should be made through the tiles or slates for the going in and out of the pigeons, and have a covering resembling a dormer or garret window, in order to keep the wet out. This outlet should, if possible face the south, or south-east, and be well sheltered from cold, from high winds and heavy rain ; because if much exposed to the weather, the growth of the young pigeons is delayed, and the health of the older ones sensibly affected.

Around the interior of the loft, a row of compartments for the pigeons must be fixed at any convenient height. Shelves placed one above another at eighteen inches apart, and divided by partitions placed at the same distance from each other, then boarded up in front, leaving outlets for the pigeons, is the simplest plan that can be adopted. Any boy, with a little ingenuity, will be able to construct these apartments, as it is not necessary that any fixed plan should be followed, only care should be taken to allow height enough for fancy breeds if they are kept, and eighteen inches will be quite sufficient for that purpose.

Nests.—Each pair of pigeons should have two nests closely adjoining, yet separated from each other by a partition ; for good breeders, generally at the same time they have young to attend to, have also eggs to hatch, and where there is no separation between the nests, the hen while sitting may be annoyed by the young birds, and compelled to quit her nest, and the eggs be broken or addled.

The pigeon lays two eggs and then sits ; the eggs are hatched nearly at the same time, as she does not sit closely upon the first egg until the second is laid. The nest is of the rudest possible construction ; a few sticks or straws laid across each other, generally serve the purpose ; often, indeed, pigeons do not take the trouble to make a nest at all, but lay their eggs upon the flat surface of the floor of their nests, in which case the eggs do not lie closely together during the progress of incubation, but are in danger of being broken by rolling on to the ground. In Germany, to prevent this, nests are provided made of straw, something like the top of a bee-hive turned upside down, the eggs naturally roll together at the bottom, and receive equal warmth while hatching.

Food and Water. — Tares or small horse-beans, called '*pigeons*' *beans*' form the best, as well as the cheapest food for pigeons ; but peas, both gray and white, barley, wheat, hemp, and rape-seeds, may be occasionally given with advantage. The food of whatever kind, should be supplied twice a-day, early in the morning and in the afternoon. On each occasion, just as much as they can eat should be given, so that there may be no waste by the scattering about of the grain, which is the case when a supply is always kept on the floor of the pigeon-house.

A constant supply of fresh water must be provided, not only for drink, but also that the pigeons may bathe themselves, which they frequently have occasion to do, in order to rid themselves of vermin. A large earthen pan will answer for both purposes, but the water must be often changed.

The floor of the pigeon-house should

be strewed with fine gravel, which is as necessary and beneficial to the health of pigeons, as it is to fowls. A little lime rubbish sprinkled with salt and water is also beneficial. Pigeons are very fond of salt, and for this reason the '*salt cat*,' is often introduced into the house: not a *real* pussy, but a composition of the following materials. About a gallon each of gravel, earth, and old mortar from walls; half-a-pound each of caraway, hemp, and mustard seeds, two or three ounces of bay salt; all to be well mixed with strong brine, and then baked in a pan, as a cake or pudding. When sufficiently dried, and become cold, it is to be placed upon the floor of the pigeon-house, where it will afford a constant source of enjoyment to the pigeons in picking out the seeds, besides contributing to keep them in health.

It is very doubtful whether such large profits are to be realised by pigeon-keeping, as some writers have maintained, who assert that owing to the rapid and prodigious increase which the birds make, there is a vast gain to be derived. For ourselves we are quite certain, that we have found the expense of maintenance, nearly equal to the profit, and we have never met with any satisfactory statement of advantageous results from the advocates of pigeon-keeping in a financial point of view, notwithstanding that the increase may be as great as sometimes has been stated, that in four years, from a single pair, 14,760 pigeons may be produced. The dung is certainly very valuable, constituting one of the most powerful manures, and if collected from the pigeon-houses in considerable quantities, would form an important item in the article of profit.

But apart from the question of gain, there is a consideration in which we entirely concur with a popular writer on this subject; he says "Pigeons are of this use; they are very pretty creatures; very interesting in their manners; they are an object of delight to *children*, and to give *them* the *early habit* of fondness for animals, and of *setting a value* on them is a very great thing. A considerable part of the property of a nation consists of animals. Of course a proportionate part of the cares and labours of a people, appertain to the breeding and bringing to perfection those animals; and a labourer is of value in proportion, as he is worthy of being entrusted with the care of animals. The most careless fellow cannot hurt a hedge or ditch: but to trust him with the *team*, or the *flock*, is another matter. And mind, for the *man* to be trust-worthy in this respect, the *boy* must have been in the *habit* of being kind and considerate towards animals; and nothing is so likely to give him that excellent habit, as his seeing, from his very birth, animals taken great care of, and treated with great kindness by his parents, and now-and-then having a little thing to *call his own*."

HOME EDUCATION.

PART VIII.—INTELLECTUAL TRAINING.

THE intellectual training of children will be very much promoted by a well-ordered course of family reading. We have said before that the mere possession of books does not necessarily imply an acquaintance with their contents; and we believe that an intelligent acquaintance with those contents is more readily to be acquired by the plan just mentioned than by almost any other. Most working-men have, in one respect, an advantage which some other classes of society do not possess,—they have, at least, long winter evenings at their own disposal, and these can, in no way, be more properly or profitably spent, than in the retirement of their own families, and by their own fire-side. But these precious hours are not always thus improved. Listen to the wife's petition to her husband:—

"But I would ask some share of hours that
you on clubs bestow,
Of knowledge which you prize so much, might
I not something know?
Subtract from meetings amongst men, each
eve an hour for me—
Make me companion of your soul, as I may
safely be.
If you will read, I'll sit and work; then think
when you're away,
Less tedious I shall find the time, dear William,
of your stay.
A meet companion soon I'll be, for e'en your
studious hours,
And teacher of those litle ones you call your
cottage flowers,"

'*If you will read!*' Ah, how could

an hour be better employed than thus? With what increased pleasure would the father's return from his daily employment be anticipated, if the anticipation were connected with the remembrance of former evenings happily passed in listening to some interesting book? And what new and rich stores of information would thus continually be opened. We strongly recommend all parents to try the experiment, who have not already tried it, and whose avocations admit of its being tried.

We would not, however, recommend that the reader should invariably be the father of the family. It would be a good exercise for the children who are old enough,—both boys and girls to read in rotation, for the benefit of the rest. That reading aloud for a great while together is fatiguing to children, and hurtful to their understandings, we readily admit; but, on the other hand, an occasional and moderate exercise of this particular use of the faculty of speech, will, we are persuaded, be found beneficial, in many ways. It will tend to fix on the minds of the readers, more permanently than by any other method, the subjects on which they are engaged; it will train them to a habit of correct speaking,—always provided that the books they read are written with tolerable correctness of taste and style; and it will be positively beneficial to health, by strengthening the chest and lungs of the readers.

If the plan of family-reading be well and systematically carried out, though but twice or three times a week, and but for an hour at a time, it is astonishing how many books may be read, and how much real knowledge may be diffused throughout the family. There is not a common subject in the whole range of English literature which might not, in the course of time, be so far studied as to be understood, at least, in its first principles; and what is of more importance, the minds of the children would be so trained to thought and activity as to be prepared for future work.

'Conversation,' says Bacon, 'makes the *ready* man;' and parents who seek the intellectual advancement of their children, should encourage them to converse freely. It is a pleasant thing for a parent to listen to the prattle of his little ones; but as they get older, the natural disposition they feel, to tell their tales of joy, or grief, or wonder, is, by some means or other, often checked; and the parent—the father especially perhaps,—cannot conceive how it is that his children are so averse to talking in his presence. We shall not attempt to solve the mystery here; but we recommend our readers to cultivate in themselves a habit of free intercourse with all around them, and then—if combined with parental affection—it will be strange if their children do not follow the example.

We have already intimated that it is a mighty assistance to the teacher of children, when parents take an interest in the instructions given at school. No less beneficial is it to the children themselves; and we strongly recommend parents to get their children to talk about the lessons they have learned, and the books they have read, either at school or at home. But more than this, habituate them also, we would say, to converse unreservedly about the common every day events taking place around them:—let no fanciful notions of parental dignity interfere to put a stop to the free interchange of thought between yourselves and them. Sacrifice such dignity, we pray you, to affection and the real welfare of your children:—yea, get rid of it as soon as you can; the sooner the better, both for them and for you.

It is one of the rarest talents—that of being able to converse; and we firmly believe that the rarity of it is, in some instances, owing greatly to unnatural and painful restraints in childhood. This is greatly to be lamented, for to say nothing of the pleasure lost by reason of this neglect, the intellectual resources of an individual whose mouth is all but closed, are lost to the society into which he may be cast, so that as far as that society is concerned, the man who in reality may be a giant in intellect, sinks down to the stature of a dwarf. On the other hand, we have known those whose attainments have been exceedingly limited, who having the knack of making the most of their knowledge by lively conversation, have been really pleasant and instructive companions. We wish not to be misunderstood here. Far be it from us to recommend parents to train their children to empty tattle, or vain display of their acquirements. What we mean is, that a correct, modest, unembarrassed, and clear expression of thought, either in giving or receiving information, is one of the happiest habits to which an intelligent boy or girl can be trained.

'And writing makes an exact man,' says Bacon. Few persons, comparatively, are able, with ease and propriety, to communicate ideas in writing. Even among those who have received what is generally supposed to be a good education, this inability very widely exists: while multitudes, who have been taught the manual art of penmanship, scarcely ever think of putting it into practical use. The erroneous composition—to say nothing of bad spelling—of such an one, when compelled by circumstances to take up a pen, is at once amusing and distressing. It should be one of the endeavours of a parent, in the home education of his children, to remove or prevent this inability.

There are a few plain and simple ways in which this may be done, so as to promote, at once, the merely mechanical art of composition and intellectual improvement, and so, also, as to give interesting amusement to evenings at home.

First of all, we would recommend that the children who are able to write, should be provided with pen and paper, or slate and pencil, and asked to write a sentence or two, or a paragraph, slowly read to them by the parent. This is one of the very best methods of teaching children to spell correctly, and to write with freedom. Of course, their exercises should afterwards be examined, and errors corrected.

Then, when the learners are tolerably apt in writing from dictation, it is a good plan to read to them a short story or anecdote, or fable—something at any rate which will readily fix their attention, and *after* reading it, require them to give, in their own words, a written version of what has been read. This will be eminently useful to them. It will teach them the habit of fixed attention. It will exercise their native powers of combination and composition. And it will show them how different accounts of the same transactions may be supplied, in entire good faith, by different witnesses or hearers.

Then, another advance may be made. Let the parent name a subject, and tell the children to write down, in a given time, all that they know on that subject; and to write it in the plainest, simplest words they can find. These, like the former exercises, should afterwards be corrected, and each composition read aloud. But, beware of ridiculing them. The attempts of children, of whatever kind, ought *never* to be laughed at.

The above are but specimens of a variety of plans which may be adopted in this particular branch of Home Education. And now, our series of papers on this subject is drawing to a close. Our hints have been necessarily slight and imperfect; for volumes might be written for every article we have penned. But we hope that our remarks will not have been quite lost upon our readers. They certainly will not, if one among them shall have been roused to the importance—not before perceived—of home training, and its bearing upon the future happiness and prosperity of the child.

There is one subject connected with Home Education which we have barely touched, not because of its non-importance, for it is of supreme and infinite importance; we refer to the *religious* training of children. We pray you then, reader, in a few last words, not to believe you have done or are doing what you can for your children, while you neglect for yourselves and them, the most vital of all matters. If the Bible be true, there is no safety apart from the salvation, which it reveals and proclaims—safety!—nay, there is a certainty of tremendous ruin. Be wise, then. Give to the religious training of your children all the attention that it demands. We would have you teach them to live for happiness and prosperity in future time, but we would have them educated for eternity too; while anxious that their bodies and intellects should be improved by exercise and discipline, we would implore you not to neglect their hearts; and while teaching them the value of industry, perseverance, honesty, frugality, and every other social virtue, be it yours, parents, to impress upon them, withal, that "Godliness is profitable unto all things, having promise of the life that now is, and of that which is to come."

THE COTTAGER'S STOVE.

The coming on of dark evenings causes people to think about the approach of winter, and the means of warmth during the cold season. It has long been known that a grate with an open fire-place is neither the cleanest nor the most economical contrivance that could be used for heating a room or for cooking; and many sorts of stoves have been invented from time to time with a view to get over these defects. Most of these stoves however have been difficult to manage, liable to get out of order, and too expensive for people of moderate income, or for the working-classes. Besides which, many persons would rather see the open cheerful fire, than have it shut up from view, as it must be in a stove.

Comfort, however, is a grand consideration, and if more warmth can be got from a close stove than from an open grate, it might be worth considering whether the experiment should be tried. A stove was invented a few months ago, which offers some advantages to those of small means; its name "The Cottager's Stove," shews that it is mainly intended for the labouring-classes. Its appearance and uses will be best understood from the drawings.

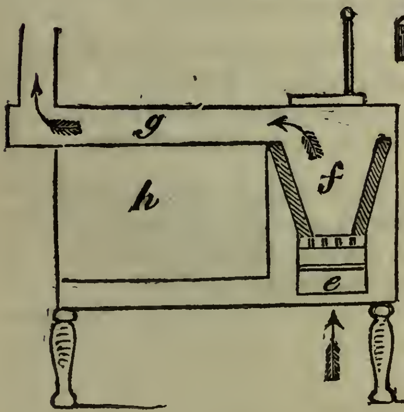


Fig. 2.

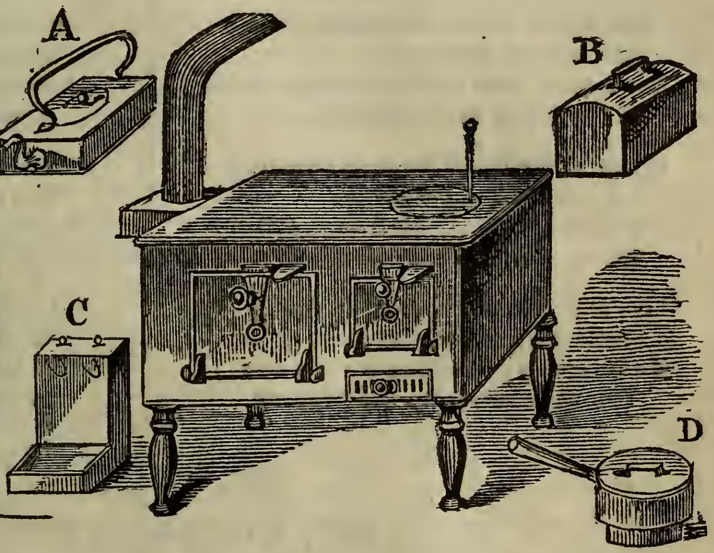


Fig. 1.

Fig. 1. is an outside view of the Stove: it may stand on the hearth in front of a grate, with the pipe turned into the chimney, or if there be no grate, then the stove can be pushed back, or drawn forwards, as may be most convenient.

The doors are made to fall down and serve as brackets, so that a kettle or dish may be placed on them. The small door on the right when open shows the fire-pan, generally red hot, and here meat may be roasted in the toaster. The drawer underneath receives the ashes, and requires to be emptied once a-day. The large door on the left belongs to the oven. The circular lid with an upright handle on the top is the cover to the fire pan.

A, is a large flat kettle to serve as a boiler. B, is an iron cover to stand on the hot-plate, so as to make an additional oven when required. C, is the toaster, and D, a saucepan fitted to the circular opening.

Fig. 2. shows the inside of the stove: *e*, the place of the drawer, where the draught enters; *f*, the fire-pan; *g*, the flue; *h*, the oven. The arrows show the direction of the current of air.

The stove is 24 inches long, 14 inches broad, 14 inches from top to bottom; and 22 inches total height with the legs.

To quote the words of the patentee, "The Cottager's Stove is an economical, compact, and portable cooking apparatus, combining a good-sized oven and hot-plate. It will cook sufficient for a dozen persons with one pound of coal or coke per hour, and the top may also be used as an ironing stove. It will burn coal (any kind) coke, charcoal, wood, or turf. It requires no fixing, has no troublesome flues to clean, may be placed in any apartment, and is a great security against accidents from fire."

We have seen one of these stoves in operation, and can state that it does its work very effectually. Pies and meat can be well baked either in the oven or on the top, and boiling can be done with equal facility. The pan which holds the fire is solid iron, with a grating at the bottom, and the fire has to be lit from the top. This is an inconvenience which ought to be got rid of; because, as it is, you first light a piece of paper or shavings, which are flung into the bottom of the pan, then the wood, and last the coke or coal, and some dexterity is required to insure that the fire will kindle quickly. The heat thrown out is very great, and as it is not easy to moderate it, this is another objection, because a small room would become unbearably hot, especially in mild or warm weather. We think also that the price is too high for cottagers; the charge for one of these stoves is £2. 10s., and the kettle, and other articles, cost 15s. 6d. more, a sum which very few cottagers are able to afford. From what we know of the cheapness with which iron castings can be produced, we are persuaded that this stove, with all its apparatus, might be made and sold for thirty shillings, and we shall hope to see it offered at this price, for in many quarters it would be extremely serviceable.

Those who are interested in this subject may see these stoves at Benham & Sons, Wigmore-street, and Baileys, High Holborn.

HEN AND CHICKENS.

'See, sister, where the chickens trip,
All busy in the morn.
Look, how their heads they dip and dip,
To peck the scattered corn.

'Dear sister, shall we shut our eyes,
And to the sight be blind,
Nor think of Him who food supplies,
To us and all mankind?

'Or many be our wants, or few,
Or fine, or coarse, our fare,
To Heaven's protecting care is due
The voice of praise and prayer.'

SPRING.—CUCKOO.

'The Bee is humming in the sun,
The yellow cowslip springs;
And hark! from yonder woodland's side,
Again the cuckoo sings!

''Cuckoo,—Cuckoo!' no other note,
She sings from day to day,
But I, though a poor cottage girl,
Can work, and read, and pray.

'And whilst in knowledge I rejoice,
Which heavenly truth displays,
Oh! let me still employ my voice,
In my Redeemer's praise.'

Bowles.

THE YOUNG GARDENER.

BY MARTIN DOYLE.—CHAPTER IV.

On one school half-holiday, Mr. Primrose took Richard with him to the park gardens, knowing that Mr. Thorpe would not object to admit there such a steady good boy. But, indeed, the greatest gormandizer of fruit, or the most notorious rogue in the parish might have been trusted alone among fruit trees in winter. Richard however, would not have touched any forbidden thing at any time. He possessed that true principle of honesty which would have made him shudder at the thought of breaking the eighth commandment, even in the most trivial degree.

Many boys and all girls consider an officer on parade with his sword drawn, a very grand object; but Richard Giles we really believe, looked on Mr. Primrose, with his pruning blade in hand, as a greater man. And, surely the idea of lopping off dead or useless branches of wood to promote fresh growth and fruit-bearing, is more agreeable to the feelings of a good-natured person than cutting off men's heads or limbs which do not sprout again; and though some trees, like the vine, might in the full season of their flowing sap, bleed to death under the knife, there is satisfaction in knowing that they suffer no pain from it.

Richard anxiously observed every movement of the gardener as he skilfully cut out shoots from the centre of a gooseberry bush, and made choice of the outside ones that were to remain after being pruned at such lengths and distances from each other as would give a round shape to the tree, and allow air and light to circulate freely among all the branches. Then Mr. Primrose pruned and trained some wall trees in different ways according to their kinds and constitutions, inclining one branch or shoot a little downwards, and another upwards, or stretching them straight across the wall. And he was kind enough to explain how pear and apple-trees bear upon spurs from the sides of the stem, on wood of some years' growth: and how the vine and filbert bear on the wood of the second season; and the fig on the wood of the same season.

Richard was so charmed with the espaliers which he saw in the park gardens, that he next day put down some sucker shoots of very fine sorts of raspberry and currant trees at each side of the centre walk of his little garden to be trained and staked in the same manner by himself. He also obtained from Mr. Thorpe cuttings of prime sorts, which he put down in a nursery border as a supply for future trees. Now and then Mr. Primrose entrusted his knife to him, but this limited indulgence only made him the more anxious to possess one, that he could call his own, and practise with whenever he pleased. He aspired also to *budding* and *grafting*, and had already learned something about those interesting operations from Mr. Primrose, who told him that he would shew him how to graft on his birth-day, which was to be on the 15th of March, when Richard hoped to have an entire holiday.

In the meantime the usual garden spring work was advancing. Richard had planted some sets of the early kidney potato, taking care to plant the sets with the crown eyes in a separate drill, because Mr. Primrose told him, that they would grow and ripen earlier than the sets from the middle part of the tuber, and that these again would be more forward than the sets with the bottom eyes. He had sown an early sort of peas, and made preparations for sowing other seeds, imitating some of Mr. Primrose's movements in the park gardens. He made a hand drill, which though merely a wooden rake, with a head four feet wide, and teeth moveable to different distances and depths, was a very nice and convenient implement, either for making close drills for seedlings or wider ones for other purposes, as for sowing carrots, parsnips, &c.

A birth-day is generally a pleasant one to those who are not growing old, if friends are fond, and sorrow does not oppress the heart. The morning of Richard's thirteenth birth-day was not indeed ushered in with the ringing of the church chimes, first, because there were no bells for chiming,—and secondly, if a second reason were wanted—because even if there had been any, Mrs. Giles' grandson was not of sufficient importance to cause a sensation in the village, or put the bell-ringers into a bustle—even if it had been his twenty-first birth-day.

But no birth-day could have had a brighter sun in March, in the country where our scene is laid, and Richard was to spend the whole of his at the park, GRAFTING for the first time of his life. The family sat down to an early breakfast, and our good boy was wished many happy returns of his birth-day; he kissed his good old grandmother and his cousin Jane Jenkins too, and shook hands with Mr. Primrose, who presented him with a beautiful pruning knife, which he had procured from London for the occasion: how very good-natured of Mr. Primrose! it was also a certain sign that he considered Richard to be a very deserving boy.

This was a delightful present for him to receive; and so eager was he to try its powers, and his own dexterity, that he hardly noticed at first the fine turkey egg which Jane had boiled for his breakfast as a special distinction on this festive day—nor the large buttered cake that was toasting itself before the fire, as if it enjoyed the warmth, and took pride in becoming brown and crisp. Any good knife, but above all for a young gardener, a pruning knife, is a nice thing to have in the pocket, and be owner of. Richard was so fully of this opinion, that he took his to school next day to shew it to his companions, but he was not such a mischievous fellow as to spoil the edge of the blade by cutting notches in the school desk. He tested its sharpness and temper however for some days, not only in his own garden, but also on the hedge-row timber on his way to and from school. Every straggling shoot he saw seemed to him as if stretching itself out to implore him to shorten its proportions; and many were the marks and tokens left of the implement. But we must not forget the 15th of March.

RECIPES,

AND ANSWERS TO INQUIRERS.

Buttermilk.—It is not generally known that buttermilk can be used for many purposes in domestic affairs; and in consequence it is often thrown away or given to pigs. New buttermilk as a drink is cooling and moist, the best remedy for a hot thirsty stomach, good for hoarseness, excellent in consumptions and fevers, and also for constipation of the bowels. When stale and sour it may be used in combination with bi-carbonate of soda for the making of bread, pastry, &c. The bread, buns, and rolls made with it are excellent, keeping moist and good much longer than those made with yeast.

Tea Cakes—Take of white flour, two pounds; bi-carbonate of soda, quarter of an ounce; sugar, two ounces; butter, two ounces; sour buttermilk, twenty ounces, or one pint. Rub the soda, sugar, and butter well into the flour, and mix with the buttermilk; roll out and make into cakes, of any convenient size, and bake in a moderate oven twenty minutes.

Luncheon Cake.—Take of white flour, one pound; bi-carbonate of soda, two drachms; sugar, three ounces; butter, three ounces; sour buttermilk, half-a-pint, or ten ounces. Mix as above, and bake in a quick oven, in a tin, one hour.

Scotch Buns—Take of white flour, two pounds; bi-carbonate of soda, two drachms; salt, quarter of an-ounce; sour buttermilk, one pint or twenty ounces. Mix and bake the same as for tea-cakes.

Lemon Buns.—Take of fine flour, two pounds; bi-carbonate of soda, six drachms; sugar, eight ounces; butter, four ounces; eggs, two; buttermilk, three-quarters of a-pint, or fifteen ounces; essence of lemons, twelve drops. Mix the same as tea-cakes, and bake fifteen minutes. The addition of six ounces of currants would make these excellent plum buns.

Plum Cake.—Take of fine flour, one pound; bi-carbonate of soda, two drachms; currants, four ounces; eggs, two; sugar and butter, each three ounces; sour buttermilk, half-a-pint, or ten ounces. Mix the flour, soda, currants, sugar and butter well together, then beat up the eggs and mix with the buttermilk. Mix the whole together, and bake in a tin, one hour and a quarter.

Pastry for Tarts, &c.—Take of fine flour, one pound; bi-carbonate of soda, two drachms; butter, six ounces; buttermilk enough to bring it to the consistence required. This paste is much superior to that made in the common way.

To Cure Hams.—The following method of curing hams has been found most successful. The flavour is delicious and the meat tender and juicy. With six ounces of saltpetre rub over the ham or hams, and so let them remain twenty-four hours. Then boil two quarts of strong old beer with one pound of brown sugar, half a-pound of bay salt, and two pounds common salt. Pour this boiling hot over the hams. Turn them every day for a fortnight, after which smoke or dry in the usual way. The above is sufficient for forty pounds of meat, and may be used again if boiled up with a little fresh salt, and a little more beer.

Another Way.—(The quantity given is sufficient for from twenty-five to thirty pounds of meat.) Bay salt, one pound, common salt, one pound and-a-half, saltpetre, two ounces, black pepper, two ounces. All to be finely powdered, well mixed, and made thoroughly hot. With this mixture rub the hams over, taking care that every part is touched. So let them lie four days, turning daily, and rubbing till the whole of the ingredients have run to brine, then it is to be poured over each. After four days, pour over one pound and-a-half of treacle. Turn and rub twice a-week for a month, lading up the pickle and pouring it over; after this, lay them in cold water for a night. Afterwards hang them in a chimney, where a wood-fire is constantly kept. When the hams are to be dressed, put them into cold water over the fire; but do not soak them.

Where sea-weeds are accessible, bacon and hams hung over the smoke of dried sea-weeds, acquire a rich and delicious flavour.

Fresh hay is very useful in preserving salted meat from rust. A hay-band may be twisted round each article, and the bacon flitches or other articles, be laid in a box on a bedding of fresh hay. A layer of hay also above each layer of meat, and one at top of all. Close tightly and keep in a dry warm place.

Observe.—The hay when applied, must be very fresh.

Plaster for Burns, Scalds, &c.—To two ounces of Burgundy pitch and half-an-ounce of bees' wax slowly melted together, add an ounce and-a-half of lard, to render the compound sufficiently soft, but *not* so soft as to melt with the warmth of the flesh. Instead of lard, fresh butter, or oil may be used. Let this salve be spread upon *old nankeen*, or any other *fine close, soft cloth.* Leather is apt to become hard on drying after any moisture getting to it. The plaster may be fitted to any part that is injured, by putting it on in as many pieces as the shape of the wound requires, for (the salve being of a proper consistency,) the pieces will adhere to each other and effectually exclude the *air*, the common enemy of all raw flesh. It is necessary to place a compress of soft cloth over the plaster to keep it in its place, for the *least wrinkle* will admit the air, and cause smarting and inflammation. Then bandage it close, so that it cannot get out of place. The bandage and compress should be carefully taken off in the course of eight, ten, or twelve hours in order to pierce (through the plaster) with a large needle any blisters which may have arisen, after which gently press down the plaster, and carefully bind the compress up again. But by no means attempt to remove the plaster under three or four days, and then with great care, so as not to remove or disturb the skin. When it becomes necessary to dress the sore, wipe the parts round it ; but by no means disturb the mucus on the raw parts. Wipe and dry the plaster as quickly as possible, and with a hot knife smooth it over, adding more salve when necessary.

Observation.—No lint to be used at any time, and let it be remembered, that two things are essentially necessary to the *cure of wounds* occasioned by burning or scalding, or any external injury, viz. :—*Rest* and a complete protection from the *air.*

For a Cough.—Take a tea-cupful of linseed, two ounces of *stick* liquorice sliced, and two ounces of sun-raisins, put them into two quarts of soft water, and simmer over a slow fire till reduced nearly one-half, then strain off and add while yet hot, two ounces of brown sugar-candy, pounded. Drink about half-a-pint, a little warmed on going to bed, and again in the morning, and at any time when the cough may be troublesome.

To make Brown or Meal Bread.

FLOUR.	BI-CARBONATE OF SODA.	BUTTERMILK.
12 lbs.	2 ounces	8 pints
9 "	1½ "	6 "
6 "	1 "	4 "
3 "	½ "	2 "
1½ "	¼ "	1 "

To make White Bread.

FLOUR.	BI-CARBONATE OF SODA.	BUTTERMILK.
12 lbs.	1½ ounce	6 pints
8 "	1 "	4 "
4 "	½ "	2 "
2 "	¼ "	1 "
1 "	2 drachms	½ "

Directions.—Mix the soda well into the flour either by rubbing it in with the hands, or sifting it through a small sieve, (a little salt may be added if it is thought proper.) Then mix in the buttermilk, as cold as possible, and put the dough into tin or iron vessels, and bake in a quick oven immediately.

THE KING AND THE CARTER.

It was the frequent habit of the king George III. to wander about the neighbourhood of Windsor, altogether unattended, and accompanied only by the young Prince of Wales, who was his almost inseparable companion. One morning, they were pursuing their walk, in their usual manner, when they met a farm-servant driving a cart-load of hay towards Windsor ; they had passed him only by a few paces, when a sudden stoppage of the vehicle, and the outcries of the driver caused them to look round, and they then perceived that the cart had got fast into a rut of the road, and the man was vainly urging his horses to drag it out. The prince sprang back, and with little thought of ceremony, began applying his strength to the wheel, his majesty watching his efforts for a moment in silence, but instantly after stepping forward himself in the same service. Encouraged by this unlooked for help, the carter flogged and bawled to his horses, while the royal shoulders heaved as heartily at the wheel; and Hercules—moved, no doubt, by their ship-shape mode of invoking his aid—gave them strength enough to accomplish what they desired; the load of hay was extricated, and the driver, grateful to his friends, swore roundly that they must take a glass of ale with him, offering at the same time a seat in the front of his cart to the next public-house.

This civil offer was not accepted, the king and the prince shook the dust of their late labour from their plain clothing, and prepared to bid their friend adieu; but first his majesty presented the fortunate carter with a guinea, which the prince, holding to be no worthy gift, instantly amended by a couple from his own purse. The carter, lost in astonishment, stood looking after these surprising helpmates (first making any thing but graceful though very sincere acknowledgments,) and it was not until they had got fairly out of his sight, that he could bethink himself of once more getting on his team. On arriving at the public-house, which he had destined as the place of his rejected treat, and relating the wonderful occurrence that had taken place, he was acquainted with the quality of his assistants, but he could in no way be brought to believe the fact. Above all, he insisted that, though the prince might be the prince, yet the king could not be the king; for, he argued, why else did the first give him two guineas, when the second, whom his informants would have to be the greater, gave him only one? No, this was not "in his philosophy," and he was convinced that his friends were wrong. The story, and especially the man's obstinacy, was talked of till it reached the king, whom it greatly amused. Some time after his majesty met the same man on the road, and thus accosted him:—

'So you think, my friend, my present was not a king's present though my son's might do for a prince, hey? but remember that I must be just before I am generous; the prince has only himself to think about, but I have many who look up to me, as your children at home do to you, for all they want—do not forget *that*, my friend; good morning, good morning,' and the monarch once more left John Carter to his cogitations.—*Mrs. S. C. Hall.*

COTTAGE FARMER'S CALENDAR.

BY MARTIN DOYLE—SEPTEMBER.

THE FIELD.

The Saving of Clover Seed.—The second crop of clover is that from which the seed is usually obtained; this is the time for saving it; the first crop ought to have been cut early in order that the second should mature its seed in the proper season. The clover when mown should be left on the ground for a few days, according to the state of the weather and the degree of ripeness, and turned occasionally, but not tedded. When perfectly dry, it should be ricked and thatched until Spring, when the seed will be wanted. The difficulty of saving clover-seed in the very damp parts of Ireland and Scotland, occasions a great demand for that saved in the drier climate of England. If fermentation should take place in the rick, (and it is difficult to avoid this in an atmosphere loaded with moisture,) the seed is of course spoiled. The treatment, therefore, of clover hay of the first crop is different from that of the second, if designed for seed. In the first case, due fermentation is promoted as essentially necessary to render the hay odoriferous and of prime quality; in the second, it is avoided as destructive of the seed. In parts of Belgium, the ripe heads of the clover are frequently pulled off by the hand and carried to the barn in bags; the stems are then mown and converted into hay in the usual way. To little farmers such as those in Ireland and Scotland, who require but a small quantity of seed, this is a simple and very certain method of obtaining prime seed, for it may be immediately protected from rain, and dried if necessary on the floor of a shed; but in a climate where all the seed may be saved with reasonable certainty and afterwards sold to farmers in less favoured localities, it must be much more beneficial to save the entire seed produce.

Trifolium Incarnatum.—On stubble land,

in clean and generally good condition, the seed of this valuable plant of the clover tribe may now be sown; no ploughing is necessary for it, the harrow or the rake (the latter for the cottager) will cover the seed and open the soil sufficiently. From fourteen pounds to twenty pounds is a sufficiency of seed for the acre. Where the Spring-sown clover has failed in patches, trifolium incarnatum should be sown; this will not only prevent the occupation of the waste spaces by weeds, but supply a valuable substitute for the clover. This hint is well worth acting upon where partial failures of clover have disappointed and embarrassed the cultivator.

Tares.—Sow these on stubble land properly prepared by the plough or the spade, and manured, if no manure had been given to the previous corn crop. Four bushels of seed if drilled will be an ample allowance to the acre; a bushel less, if the tares be intended to bear seed. When leisure hours permit, cart out manure on land intended for wheat, and take care not to allow any of the hedge weeds to shed their seeds; the trimming of hedges, and the collecting of weeds, either for the pig-yard, or for burning, should not be neglected. Every early kind of the potato, will have been long since ripe. Those tubers which have been left in the ground for next year's supply of seed, should be taken up, when the soil about them is dry, and either laid in a *dark* cellar on a dry floor, or collected on a dry spot of the field rather raised above the level of the surface, than sunk below it in a trench as is the too common practice. Towards the *end* of the month, some of the late kinds will be fit for securing in the same manner; but care should always be taken not to lift the potato crop for stacking or storing, unless it be quite ripe, that is, until the haulms are perfectly withered and the tubers fall off from the roots on the slightest movement of them. Many persons who have but a small portion of field under the potato crop, place a layer of reeds or straw over it during the winter to guard against frost; where winters are mild, this is really a better plan than stacking the potato crop in heaps, in which they often become rotted. A *heavy* covering of earth shovelled over any plat of ground, bearing a potato crop, towards the approach of winter would be in many cases the most natural, and we believe, the most effective preservative of the potato in the winter season.

THE GARDEN.

The Fruit and Kitchen Garden.—Gather pears and apples which are ripe and to be *kept*. Lay the choice varieties of pears, after being very gently wiped, in air-tight drawers. Straw or fern, perfectly dry, is a safe covering generally for apples and pears, which should not be allowed to touch each other, as the slightest pressure soon taints them. Ripe currants may be kept fresh on the trees for a long time if bass mat be tied round them. Make cuttings of gooseberries, and plantations of Keen's, and Elton's British Queen strawberries. Gather gherkins and nasturtiums for pickling. Break down the stalks of onions, and expose the bulbs to the sun as much as possible. Gather pot-herbs, dry them in the sun; and gather and dry parsley, which will prove excellent for all purposes of cookery when no green parsley may be found in the garden. By rubbing it between the hands the flavour of the dried herb is brought out: it should be kept in paper bags. Mint should be transplanted into a box or pots, to be kept under cover in the winter, in order to have it fit for use with the early lamb. Gather seeds as they ripen. If your garden space be limited, you may cut down some of the asparagus plants—if you have a bed of this delicious vegetable—which have turned quite yellow, and plant lettuces and endive. Blanch the full-grown endive, and earth-up celery. Plant out the nonpareil or Fulham cabbages one foot apart in the rows—the alternate plants will serve for greens, and on their removal, the remaining plants will have their full room. The stalks of the summer cabbages will, if cut down, furnish a good supply of sprouts for winter use.

The Flower Garden.—Allow some of the plants which have sprung up from the seed shed by hardy annuals to remain in the beds or borders: they will probably blow early in the next season. Propagate pansies by offsets. Pot layers of carnations and pinks. Pot roses for the window or greenhouse. Bring in all greenhouse plants from their summer quarters on the first symptoms of frost. Take cuttings of geraniums, they will root under any hotbed frame, though all heat may have passed away. Dahlias will still require to be tied or girded, and relieved from earwigs, which are now a great nuisance.

ON PLACING A COTTAGE.

The *aspect* of the cottage is a very material consideration. If it can be obtained, a south-eastern, southerly, or westerly slope is decidedly the best. The warmth is greater of such a position; the most balmy breezes fall upon the full front of the cottage. The windows and doors being placed upon the same warmer side of the dwelling, admit directly only the warmest and the best air, and in consequence the dwelling-room is kept sufficiently comfortable with a less expenditure of fuel. All these objects, too, are materially aided by placing the cottage under the shelter of higher ground, which keeps off the full force of the northerly and easterly winds.—*C. W. Johnson.*

VARIETIES.

The Empty Purse. — Mr. Davis the celebrated metaphysical writer was a man of great good sense and shrewdness in common affairs. A friend once said to him, 'You seem to have been, in your time, a close student of economy. Did you begin it early?' 'Yes, sir, necessity obliged me. My first lesson I have not forgotten. When I was a boy, I somehow got a few pence, and coming into St. Austell on a fair-day, laid out all upon a purse. My empty purse often reminded me of my folly; and the recollection of it has since been as useful to me as Franklin's whistle was to him.'

Asking Questions. — Questions are the keys that unlock the treasures of knowledge. It is better to admit ignorance than to show it. To a genuine philosopher the candid inquirer is always welcome—and let not the seekers after truth fear hazarding a blunder now and then. Let it be remembered that he who never made a blunder, never made a discovery.

Improvements in Travelling.—Of all inventions, the alphabet and printing press alone excepted, those inventions which abridge distance, have done most for the civilization of our species. Every improvement of the means of locomotion benefits mankind morally and intellectually as well as materially, and not only facilitates the interchange of the various productions of nature and art, but tends to remove national and provincial antipathies, and to bind together all the branches of the great human family. In the 17th century the inhabitants of London were, for almost every practical purpose, farther from Reading than they now are from Edinburgh; and farther from Edinburgh than they now are from Vienna.—*Macaulay's History of England.*

Cure for the Whooping Cough. — 'I know,' said one of my parishioners, 'what would cure him, but mayhap you wouldn't believe me.' 'What is it, Mary?' I asked. 'Why, I did every thing that everybody told me. One told me to get him breathed on by a piebald horse. I took him ever such a way to a horse at ———, and put him under the horse's mouth! but he was no better. Then I was told to drag him backward through a bramble bush. I did so, but this didn't cure him. Last of all I was told to give him nine fried mice, fasting in a morning, in this way; three the first morning, then wait three mornings, and then give him three more; wait three mornings, and then give him three more. When he had eaten these nine fried mice he became quite well. This would be sure to cure your child, sir.' — *Notes and Queries.*

Think Twice and Speak Once.—'I know not,' says Scott (the commentator) in a letter to a friend, 'I know not how you have found it, but in many instances I have observed that things which at the moment seemed so pertinent and conclusive, that they ought to be said, have afterwards appeared to me far too sharp, and had better have been withheld. I now never write anything which involves dispute, if I can help it, without laying the letter by a day or two, and then revising it.' In conversation as well as in writing, how many sharp and bitter words would be spared or softened if a similar delay were afforded for consideration whether they were really necessary, suitable, expedient, or right? A wise man will neither speak nor write without such consideration, and by the exercise of it, he will escape most of the strifes and contentions that embitter the lives of individuals and break up the peace of society. Truly happy are they whose spirits are so thoroughly imbued with christian gentleness, forbearance and love, that words of kindness always flow from their tongue and their pen, as naturally as honey distils from the honeycomb. Such persons, not only avoid needless strife, but diffuse around them an atmosphere of peace and love.

Fishy Punishment.—In the reign of Queen Elizabeth, if bad fish was sold to the poor, the knavish fishmonger was decorated with a necklace of his unsavoury commodity, and was then perched on a stand in the market.

The Corner.

Knowledge.—Valuable knowledge can be attained only by personal effort. The wisest instructor, the best written book, the most favourable circumstances, can only point out the gates and doors which lead to the fields of knowledge. Every one must traverse the hills and valleys for himself: and it is only by unremitting application and perseverance that the attempt will be crowned with success. But to the devoted persevering seekers, success is certain. The state of mind is such as to ensure the best use being made of any accessible helps, and of the exercise of ingenuity and application in surmounting difficulties even in the absence of all foreign aid. Whatever may be his present deficiencies and disadvantages, the person—especially the young person—who is so sensible of the value of knowledge as to apply his heart to understanding—to seek for it as for silver, and search for it as for hid treasures—assuredly shall not seek in vain. Knowledge in general is the prize of application—and in the pursuit of the most valuable of all knowledge we have an express promise from the Fountain of Wisdom, the Father of Lights, of success to the diligent seeker.—See *Proverbs* ii. 2–6.

GRANDFATHER'S DARLING.

THE engraving which accompanies this tale presents a view of the peaceful in-door life of a happy family. A sweet tranquillity, the blessing of heaven, rests upon it, which comes to man from within and cannot be bought with gold.

While the ready carpenter is busy in his workshop, the youngest child sits in its mother's lap and peeps merrily over the bowl which it holds to its mouth with both hands. The old grandfather with the snow-white hair has just heard little Margery repeat her lesson from her school-book, and the diligent lassie though not more than nine years of age, has come well through the trial. At each question she raised her eyes with such a glad and trustful look, and folded her little hands so reverently that the grandfather's heart laughed within him, for Margery was his darling.

'Dear grandfather,' she asked, 'why did you hang that beautiful garland on the linden tree this morning?'

'It is a memorial of the war-time,' replied the old man.

'Ah, then, tell me all about it, grandfather; what happens in war-time, and why the pretty wreath is hung on the tree?'

'It is a long story, young chatterer,' answered her relative, 'and at last you come into it: so pay attention.' And the grandfather began :—

'Once on a time there lived here in the village a man, named Meyer'—

'Oh, grandfather, that is your name,' interrupted Margery.

'Yes, truly, my name is the same as the man's of whom I am going to tell you, so—still! And this Meyer was well-to-do, for he was owner of a snug farm, and had laid by a little heap of bright dollars; but his greatest treasure was a dear and good daughter. When this daughter—I will call her Marie, the same as your mother—when she was eighteen years old, two young men were then living in the village. One was named Antony, the other Frank, or black Frank, as he was commonly called, because of his black hair and dark skin.

Antony was the son of a poor widow; he had learnt his trade in the town and was a skilful workman. Yet he had nothing but what he could earn with his two hands, and a crazy old cottage, which he was obliged to prop and patch every day, to prevent its tumbling down altother. Industry was the word; and industrious he was, working from sunrise to nightfall, to make the life of his aged mother easy and comfortable.

Frank was also a clever fellow, but in another way. People said he ought to have been a schoolmaster for he wrote a wonderful hand, just like engraving, and had an ingenious head. He tried many things, but kept long to none. He had been clerk to a lawyer, then a trader, a forester, went for a soldier—yet only for a little while. No one knew what he did, nor how he lived, Sometimes he was here in the country at the little farm left to him by his parents, sometimes in the town where lived his cousin, a broker, with whom he had much to do. He never worked, and yet went well dressed, and had nearly always plenty of money in his pocket.

Old Meyer had little trust in Frank, and saw unwillingly that the young man came often to visit his daughter, and sought to win her heart with flatteries, after the manner of idle people. He would be telling her every minute how pretty she was, that he had never seen a handsomer maiden, and that there was no other in the whole world whom he would marry.

Of marriage, however, there was no fear: Marie cared nothing at all for Frank, scarcely listened to his fine phrases, and always gave short answers. But do you know who it was that she did love? It was Antony, who could look every one free and openly in the face, just the same as my Margery.

Marie and Antony had been very fond of each other as children, and as Marie now saw him such a true and good-hearted fellow, so was it natural she should love him still more. At any moment Antony would have gone through fire and water for her sake. Both knew it, but they spoke not of it. Marie's father knew it also, and it made him sometimes glad and sometimes sorry. The best way would have been for him some fine morning there outside under the linden tree to have laid their hands one in the other and said, 'Antony you are a brave fellow; here take the dearest object I possess in the world — my daughter!'

But he did not say this, for Antony was as poor as a churchmouse, and that was an objection which Meyer could not get over. No doubt it is a comfortable thing to have plenty of money, but no one should love it too well, for to-day it is here, to-morrow there. It is neither a true friend in need, nor a merit before God. Old Meyer now-a-days values an upright and faithful heart above all gold; but then, before he had learned the true worth of a man, he thought otherwise.

It was indeed an anxious time; people lived as though a thunderstorm darkened the sky, and they could scarcely draw breath for the sultry air. Thunder came at last—war-thunder: the enemy broke into the land, and far and wide terrible things were spoken of. In one place they had plundered, in another they drove away the cattle, burnt down houses, ravaged the fields, and ill-treated the inhabitants. Our village was for a time undisturbed, although all lived in fear and terror; wherever you went you saw anxious faces, each one was deeply concerned for his own safety. They got up in the morning filled with bitter expectation, and timid and trembling went to bed at night. How could they sleep quietly when they feared every minute to be wakened by an alarm of robbery, and to have their houses burnt above their heads?

At that time black Frank was absent oftener than usual, and when he came home he clinked money in his pocket and laughed at the neighbours' affright. No one knew what to think of him. Some said his cousin, the broker, employed him at all sorts of business, by which the knowing fellow made money as fast as hay. Others thought he had taken to bad ways and was a spy.

Old Meyer said nothing. It is easier to injure a man's character, than to make it clear and sound again in the eyes of the world. Therefore, thought he, one must be prudent. Just at that very time while he was thinking about Frank the young man came in and said he had long wished to speak out on a matter that lay on his heart: he loved Meyer's daughter Marie and wanted to marry her.

'Ei, ei,' replied Meyer, 'you choose a bad time for marrying.

'I don't think so,' answered Frank, 'it is a time when every maiden needs a man's protection. There is no want of money,' he added boastfully, and rattled the hard dollar pieces.

'Shall I speak openly what I think, Frank?' asked Meyer.

He nodded his head, and his cheeks turned red, for he saw well that the answer would not be in his favour.

'I believe, Frank, that my daughter does not love you.'

Black Frank bit his lips angrily, but said nothing.

'And if she did love you,' continued Meyer, 'I should first want to know in what way you come by your money—without work. Yes, I should require to know that every penny which you spend was fairly and honestly earned, and no stain upon it.'

Frank retorted insolently—'There are many ways of making money, but the wise man does not tell them all to the big bell. I hope though, you don't take me for a thief or robber?'

'I say nothing of the sort,' answered Meyer, 'for I don't know what you follow; however, he to whom I give what is to me the dearest in the world—I must be able to read him as truly as in the gospel.'

'You mean then, that you wont give me your daughter?' said Frank with flashing eyes, while the veins in his forehead swelled angrily up with passion. He hardly waited for an answer, and cried in wild rage, 'You shall repent that, as surely as my name is black Frank. Think upon it.' And then he rushed forth.

Three days went by; Frank had gone nobody knew whither. In the third night about eleven o'clock, some one knocked loudly on the shutters, so that old Meyer sprang suddenly out of bed and cried, 'Who's there?'

'Quick, let me in,' answered a well-known voice; 'it is I, Antony.'

Meyer opened the door, and was not a little frightened at the sight of the young man, pale as death and breathless with alarm and exertion. 'I come,' he said, 'from the town,—in an hour the enemy will be here. There was a battle in the morning, and they are retreating. Part of them are marching straight hither, and who do you think is their guide?—Black Frank. He and his cousin the broker are traitors and spies, and have sold themselves to the French. I ran along the bye-paths, as fast as I could, in order to get ahead of them. I knew Frank by the sound of his voice, as he passed almost close at my side, but I stooped down and hid myself in the tall corn.'

At that moment Meyer thought neither of money or estate, nor house or farm, which might be pillaged and burnt by the enemy, he thought only of his daughter and Frank. 'Marie, Marie!' he exclaimed, almost in despair. Antony was thinking of her also, for he said hastily, 'In the name of all that is dear to you, Meyer, you will not think of letting her stay here; who knows what schemes black Frank may have in his head? It was on that account I ran so desperately. I'll bring her over the hill and through the forest to my old aunt's at Burgsdorf; her house is so hidden on the moor that no one ever goes there. For heaven's sake, Meyer, trust her to me: I'll stake my life for hers.'

The old man turned to call his daughter, but she had already risen from her bed as soon as she heard Antony's voice, and stood there dressed as her father opened the door. A painful struggle was going on in the timid maiden's feelings. She could not bear to leave her parent, and yet the thought of Frank filled her with terrible apprehensions; for when three days before he had left the house in a rage he met her coming from the well, and spoke confidently 'Marie, the next time I come it will be to fetch you as my wife: say that to your father.'

Old Meyer was soon resolved. 'You shall go with Antony,' he said; 'Go, Antony, delay not; God send us a happier return!' There was no time to be lost, and that made the sad and mournful parting easier.

How beautiful was the bright moon-lit night! How calm and peaceful! The tall corn gleamed and swayed gently to and fro like waves of silver. Meyer could follow the fugitives with his eye for a great distance as they fled hastily along the fieldpaths. At last they disappeared. Oh, sorrow, how will it be in the quiet village ere but a few hours; perhaps those who lie dead under the wooden crosses in the churchyard are to be envied!

Marie and Antony keeping close together, hastened on without speaking. They were near the hill when the young girl uttered a faint cry and trembled in every limb: she saw bayonets glisten, although as yet far off. 'It is the soldiers,' said Antony, 'we must get into the forest before they reach the cross, for we cannot hide here. Let us go a little faster, but not run, so as to keep up our strength.' At length they had passed the hill; meantime the soldiers had come nearer and nearer, and unluckily it was as light as day, every object was distinctly visible. It was impossible that the two could reach the forest undetected. They heard a loud call. 'Now or never!' whispered Antony, and dragged Marie on with him. Fear quickened their steps and they ran as though they had wings. Two shots were fired, but fell short; and in a few minutes the fugitives were concealed by the trees. Yet breathless as they were, they rested not until they had penetrated far into the thicket, where pursuit was no longer to be dreaded.

Long before this fatal night Meyer had buried his money and most valuable property, so that he had nothing further to do but to awaken the neighbours, and provide food and drink for the terrified villagers, whereby to keep up their courage as much as possible. In a short time every one was afoot; but all in terror, alarm, and confusion. Each ran in the other's way; each hurried to save and hide something, whatever he could. It was as though each one thought the soldiers would carry off all the household goods; beds and bedsteads, chairs, chests and tables.

Suddenly the rattle and roll of drums was heard, weapons flashed, and the enemy marched into the village, and word was given for every one to stay quietly in-doors. Presently black Frank entered a house. 'Meyer,' he said, 'now it is a question of life and death. Your fate is in my hands. Give me your daughter, and no harm shall befal you.'

'She is not here,' was the answer.

'Not here,' he cried, 'you lie; she must be here. Don't parley too long old man; one way or the other; you have no time to deliberate, I must know at once.'

He burst open the door of Marie's chamber: the bed was empty. 'It is a lie,' he cried again, 'she must be here. I'll find her if I search every corner of the house and every house in the village. And you, Meyer, will have cause to remember this night.'

Black Frank strode away, but in a few minutes returned with a party of soldiers: 'That is the richest man in the village,' he said, pointing to Meyer; 'he must pay for all the rest; don't let him go.'

Then the uproar began: 'Money, money,' was their cry. Meyer gave them what he had, but it was not much. They were not in the least satisfied, and broke open every closet and coffer, to search for hidden gold. It was a painful sight, to see how they tore everything out; garments and household linen prepared as part of Marie's marriage portion; the clothes worn by her mother who had long been dead, all were scattered and trampled under foot. Many cherished memorials, which for years had been carefully preserved, were all at once destroyed by the rude handling of the plunderers. It cut old Meyer to the heart; yet he was obliged to bear it in silence, without uttering a word. The soldiers searched every corner, but found nothing that they wanted, for the money had been buried long before, and lay in the garden under the pear-tree.

They stormed more furiously than ever, would listen to no remonstrance or persuasion, and acted like madmen. They snatched Meyer's watch from his pocket, tore the betrothal-ring from his finger, pushed him about with the stocks of their muskets, and demanded a large sum of money, to be paid down there and then on the spot.

Black Frank was not present at this scene: he had climbed up into the dovecote to see if Marie had concealed herself there. Happily she was in safety. And it was that which made her father so brave and stedfast. But the soldiers grew more and more severe in their rough usage. They beat him cruelly with their sheathed swords: pulled his white hair out by the roots; held their bayonets against his breast and cried threateningly—'Confess where your money is, old curmudgeon, or there's an end of you.'

At this terrible moment, when life and

death seemed but a hair-breadth asunder, the door flew open. It was Antony who rushed in ; after placing Marie in safety he had hurried back. To see the danger in which old Meyer stood, to seize a stool and strike down two of the soldiers, was with him the work of an instant. It was perhaps not prudent, but it was faithful and unselfish on his part. 'Flee, Meyer, flee,' he cried, and opposed himself to the remaining soldiers ; when all at once he fell back wounded in three places, and his exasperated foes would have taken a quick revenge, had not black Frank fortunately entered at that juncture. He persuaded them to withhold their purpose for a time, but to bind the two as prisoners, for Meyer would be forced to tell where he had hidden his money, and Antony would have to be shot publicly as a warning to the village, for having assaulted the soldiers. Frank yet hoped to learn where Marie was concealed, and strove by threats to find out the secret. Meyer kept a stubborn silence ; although he had proposed to himself, before it came to the worst, to offer all his money for the sparing of Antony's life. He would have done so at once, could he have trusted to the good faith of the invaders.

Those were solemn and fearful hours which passed between that time and the morning. Antony lay senseless ; and at last Meyer, whose strength was exhausted, fell into a confused and dreamy condition.

The pain of his wounds roused Antony to consciousness towards morning, and the old man was awakened by an alarm that arose outside. Immediately he saw the soldiers snatch up their firelocks and hurry forth, without troubling themselves further about their captives. Drums rattled and rolled—quick march was beaten—there was a running and shouting, orders and counter-orders—a volley of musketry—nearer and nearer it came—and then was heard the heavy tread of a troop of cavalry. Ah, how the prisoners' hearts beat, as they lay there helpless within !

It seemed clear the enemy had been surprised, and now, would they show fight? For a time the clash, the tramp, and tumult continued, now nearer, now farther, then all was still. Yet a brief while, the door again flew open, soldiers rushed in ; but, thank heaven, they were friends.

Antony's wounds were dressed by the field-surgeon, and pronounced not to be dangerous. On the same day Marie came back, and then old Meyer spoke, as he ought to have spoken long before ; and Marie nursed her betrothed until he was quite well again. And what a jubilee there was in the village when Antony and Marie were married.

'But what became of black Frank?' asked Margery.

'He came to a sudden end ; for on the hasty retreat with his party he was mortally wounded by a chance bullet, and on being brought back to the village, died before ten minutes had passed—having had time to see how every one turned away from him with a shudder.'

'But grandfather,' repeated the little girl, not yet content, 'you said that I came into the story at last ; where am I then ?'

The grandfather laughed roguishly as he replied—'Here you are, here in the middle of the history ; for old Meyer is your grandfather himself, as he looks and lives, and the brave Antony is your father, and the good Marie, who sits there wiping the tears from her eyes, is your dearest mother.—Are you content ?'

And the crown is still hung every year on the linden tree, where the grandfather laid the hands of his children together, and gave them his blessing, for it is truly pleasant to have so old, so venerable a tree as a witness.

THE INFLUENCE OF CLOTHING ON THE HEALTH OF THE SKIN.

It is a fact which must be apparent to every one, that clothing, in itself, has no property of bestowing heat, but is chiefly useful in preventing the dispersion of the temperature of the body, and, in some instances, in defending it from that of the atmosphere. This power of preserving heat is due to the same principle, whatever form the raiment may assume, whether the natural covering of birds and animals, or whether the most beautiful and elegant tissues of human manufacture. In every case it is the power which the coverings possess of detaining, in their meshes, atmospheric air, that is the cause of their warmth.

We have an exemplification of this principle in the lightness of all articles of warm clothing, as compared with water; the buoyancy, for example, of a fleece of wool or the lightness of a feather. In the eider-duck or the sea-bird, it is the accumulation of warm air within their downy covering, that defends them alike from the temperature of the water, and from its contact. The furs from the piercing regions of the north, which we prize so highly as articles of dress, are, to the animals they invest, so many distinct atmospheres of warm air, and the same principle is carried out in the clothing of man. Our garments retain a stratum of air kept constantly warm by its contact with the body, and as the external temperature diminishes, we increase the number of layers by which the person is enveloped. Every one is practically aware that a loose dress is much warmer than one that fits close,—that a loose glove is warmer than a tight one, and that a loose boot or shoe, in the same manner, bestows greater warmth than one of smaller dimensions. The explanation is obvious: the loose dress encloses a thin stratum of air, which the tight dress is incapable of doing, and all that is required is that the dress should be closed at the upper part, to prevent the dispersion of the warm air and the ventilating current which would be established from below. The male summer dress in this climate, consists of three layers, which necessarily include two strata of atmospheric air; that of females contains more; and, in the winter season we increase the number to four, five, or six. As the purpose of additional layers of dress is to maintain a series of strata of warm air within our clothes, we should, in going from a warm room into the cold, put on our defensive coverings some little time previously, in order that the strata of air which we carry with us may be sufficiently warmed by the heat of the room, and may not be in need of borrowing from our bodies. Otherwise we must walk briskly in order to supply heat, not only to keep up the warmth of the strata of atmosphere nearest ourselves but also to furnish those which we have artificially made by our additional coverings. When we have been for some time in the air, if we could examine the temperature or climate between the several layers of our dress, we should find the thermometer gradually falling as it was conveyed from the inner to the outer spaces.

These observations on dress have reference to the number of layers of which the covering is composed, but they are equally applicable to the texture of the garment itself. The materials employed by man in the manufacture of his attire, are all of them *bad conductors of heat*,—that is to say, they have little tendency to conduct, or remove, the heat from the body; but on the contrary, are disposed to retain what they receive,—hence they are speedily warmed, and once warm, preserve their temperature for a lengthened period, and convey the sensation of warmth to the hand. They are also bad conductors of electricity, and on this account, become sources of safety in a thunderstorm.

They are all derived from the organic world, some from the vegetable and some from the animal kingdom;—for instance, hemp and flax are the fibres of particular plants, while cotton is the covering of the seed of a plant. Silk, wool, hair, feathers, and leather, are animal productions; of these materials, the first five are chiefly employed as articles of clothing, and in order to be fitted for their purpose, are spun into threads, and then woven into a tissue of various degrees of fineness and closeness. It is evident that this tissue will have the effect of retaining a quantity of air proportioned to the size of its meshes; hence, besides the strata of atmosphere imprisoned between the different articles of clothing, each article is, in itself, the depository of an atmosphere of its own.

Thick textures are warmer than thin ones made of the same material, because the body of air retained in their meshes is greater, as we see illustrated in blankets and woollen garments.

To the inhabitants of cold climates, feathers are a source of peculiar comfort, but from their bulk, are not easily convertible into body garments.

Linen is a good conductor and bad radiator. On this account it is that, despite its excellence in other particulars, it feels cold when it touches the skin. From the porosity of its fibre, it is very attractive of moisture, and when the body perspires, it absorbs the perspiration actively, and displaces the air, which in a dry state is held within its meshes; so that in place of an atmosphere of dry air, it becomes the means of *maintaining a layer of moisture.* Now, water is one of the best conductors of heat, and removes it so rapidly from the body, as to cause a general chill. But this is not all; the moisture in the tissue of the linen has so great a capacity and attraction for heat, that it continues to rob the body of more and more of that element, until the whole of the fluid is evaporated. These circumstances have caused the entire abandonment of linen as a covering next the skin, in hot climates, where the apparel must be necessarily thin. But in temperate and cold climates we get over the inconvenience by wearing over the linen, a woollen or leather covering in the winter, and a cotton or thin woollen in the summer.—*From a Treatise on the Management of the Skin, by* Erasmus Wilson, F.R S.

CHRISTIAN POLITENESS.

Christianity is designed to refine and soften, to take away the heart of stone, and to give us hearts of flesh, to polish off the rudenesses and arrogance of our manners and tempers, and to make us, blameless and harmless, the sons of God without rebuke. Lord Chatham, in one of his letters to his nephew, finely says, "Politeness is benevolence in little things." Religion should make us the most polite creatures in the world; and what persons of rank do from education, we should do from principle, yielding our own desires and claims to become all things to all men, if by any means we may gain some: and be not only sincere, but without offence, until the day of Christ. If so, some professors of religion have much to learn. They think of nothing but their own indulgence. They know nothing of bearing with infirmity; of waiting for improvement; of watching for opportunity. They are decisive, and dictatorial, and hasty, and severe. They pride themselves only on what they call faithfulness, and which is the easiest thing in religion to them, because it falls in with their own natural temper, not to say that frequently what they call fidelity is only rudeness and insolence. But while we can do nothing against the truth, but for the truth, we are required to be courteous, and to pursue whatsoever things are lovely and of good report. And without this, professors will not only render religion unamiable and repulsive, but will lower themselves in general estimation, and lose the influence which is desirable from reputation and esteem. Who can regard the haughty and the selfish? But for a good man some would even dare to die. An inoffensive, self-denying, lovely disposition and carriage wins the heart. It is not in our power to love; but it is in our power to be loved. Our loving another depends upon him; and here we have no control; but another's loving us depends upon ourselves; and he that will have friends must show himself friendly. Doddridge buried a most interesting child at nine years of age. The dear little creature was a general favourite; and he tells us in his funeral sermon, that when he one day asked her how it was that everybody loved her, 'I know not,' she said, 'unless it be that I love everybody.' Tell your children this. Also, read to them —" The child Samuel grew on, and was in favour both with the Lord and also with men."—*Wm. Jay.*

EARLY RISING.

From an answer to a correspondent in a recent number of the *Family Economist*, it would appear that some person has been seeking advice as to successfully forming a habit of early rising. Example is often more forcible than precept, and the following simple fact may be acceptable to others who, like the inquirer above-mentioned, are desirous of forming so valuable a habit. In one of the cities of England resides a venerable minister of great celebrity, both as a preacher and writer. For upwards of sixty years he has maintained a high degree of popularity in his public character, and has been singularly respected, beloved, and honoured in private life. A few years since, the writer of these lines, being on a visit at his house, was not a little surprised to see the good old gentleman, between five and six o'clock in the morning, working in his garden with the agility and energy of a young man; and this on a Monday morning, after having conducted two public services on the preceding day. He stated that this was his usual practice, and a source of health and enjoyment. From a youth, he had never been in bed at six o'clock, excepting on occasions of real illness, which had been of rare occurrence. 'But,' said he, 'do not imagine that it has cost me no effort to rise early. When young, I was much inclined to indulge in bed, but being convinced that it was a wicked waste of time, and a bar to improvement, I resolved to put an end to it. So every night I had a large basin of water placed by my bedside, and the moment I awoke, out I turned, and dipped my head in the water—then, you know, sleep was gone, and I had my senses about me. For a short time I required to be awakened at a certain hour, but it soon ceased to be necessary; I awoke of my own accord. The only thing required was to get my head into the water without entering into any debates. Any *young* person may, by this method, successfully cure himself of wanting to lie a-bed late. I am not sure that it would be effectual for an *old* sluggard, but it is worth making the trial.' Perhaps at some future day, the public may know for what portion of the valuable labours of this excellent man they are indebted to his habit of early rising. Dr. Doddridge has remarked, that the difference of daily rising two hours earlier, supposing the same time of going to rest be observed, and the practice maintained for forty years, adds six years to a man's waking life!—and states that his great work, *The Family Expositor*, was the fruit of early rising. Well might he adopt the sentiment of his family motto, *Dum Vivimus Vivamus*—"While we live let us live," on which he composed the following lines, pronounced by Dr. Johnson "the finest epigram in the English language:"—

"'Live while you live,' the epicure would say,
And seize the pleasures of the present day;
'Live while you live,' the sacred preacher cries,
And give to God each moment as it flies.
Lord, in my view let both united be!
I live in pleasure while I live to Thee."

THE BOAT OF LIFE.

BY THOMAS MOORE.

Let's take this world as some wide scene,
Through which, in frail but buoyant boat,
With skies now rude, and now serene,
Together thou and I must float;
Beholding oft, on either shore,
Bright spots where we should love to stay;
But Time plies swift his flying oar,
And on we speed—away, away!

Should chilling winds and rain come on,
We'll raise our awning 'gainst the shower;
Sit closer till the storm is gone,
And smiling, wait a sunnier hour.
And if that sunnier hour should shine,
We'll know its brightness cannot stay,
And, happy while 'tis mine and thine,
Complain not when it fades away.

Thus reach we both, at last, that fall
Down which Life's currents all must go—
The dark, the brilliant, destined all
To sink into the void below.
Nor e'en that hour shall want its charms,
If side by side still fond we keep,
And calmly, in each other's arms
Together linked, go down the steep.

RECIPES,

AND ANSWERS TO INQUIRERS.

For cleaning light Kid Gloves.—If the gloves are not so much soiled as to require wetting, they may be cleaned thus:—Scrape fine as much as a teaspoonful of French chalk. Put on the gloves as for wear, taking care that the hands be not only clean, but cool and dry. Put some of the powdered chalk into the palm of one glove, and rub the hands and fingers together, just as if the chalk were soap employed in washing the hands. In this way rub in all the chalk. Then take off the gloves, without shaking them, and lay them aside for an hour or two, or a night, if it suit. Again put them on, and clap the hands together till all the chalk is shaken out. Fuller's earth, powdered and sifted, may be used in the same manner as French chalk, and will answer nearly as well. Or gloves slightly soiled may be cleaned by rubbing with a very clean and dry bit of india-rubber. White kid gloves, or very light stone-colour, or lilac, (not darker than what is called a French white) may be stained of a bright and delicate yellow, just the colour of cowslips, by rubbing them with the petals of the common white rose. The roses must be fresh gathered for this purpose; and the best method of applying the leaves is by putting the glove on its proper hand, and then rubbing. If not convenient to do the whole at one time, the effect is not injured by laying them aside, and taking up again. When done, they look quite equal to new, and keep clean longer than gloves of the same colour stained in the ordinary way.

If the gloves are so much soiled as to require washing, the best application is a strong lather made of curd soap with new milk; or water will do. A very small quantity of liquid will suffice. Before wetting the glove, run a strong thread through the opposite sides, close to the wrist binding. Leave it about a quarter of a yard long, and make a large knot at each end. This is to form a loop or handle by which to hang up the glove to dry, and hold it open. Having prepared the lather, put one glove on the hand, and apply the lather by means of a shaving brush or a piece of fine flannel, carrying the strokes downwards, that is, from the wrist or arm to the tips of the fingers. Continue this process till the dirt disappears, though the glove appears of a dingy ill-looking colour. Then take a clean soft towel, and dab it till the soap is removed. Take off the glove, blow into it to open all the fingers, and, by means of the aforesaid loop, hang it to dry in a shady but airy place. The loop should be fixed to two pegs, or by two pegs or strings, fastened to a line in such a manner as to keep the sides of the glove apart while drying. When dry, they will have regained their original colour, and be smooth, glossy, soft, and shapeable. Or, the gloves when cleaned as above, may be laid to dry on several folds of clean linen above and below. Limerick gloves should be washed clean with a strong lather of soap and water, applied with a brush as above. The lather must not be warmer than new milk. When dry from the lather, apply a solution of saffron, stronger or weaker, according to the colour desired. A very small quantity of saffron will suffice. Pour boiling water to it, and let it steep at least twelve hours before using. Those who are frequently cleaning this kind of gloves, may steep a drachm of saffron in half-a-pint of boiling water, and when cold, put the whole into a bottle, without straining. Cork it close, and it will keep a long time for use as required.

Salad Cream or Dressing.—If the inquiry of H. C. is directed to the preparation of an article for *keeping long*, we should recommend the purchase of the article in bottles from some trustworthy oilman; and this article is by some persons prepared and recommended especially for the use of excursion parties, or occasions on which the ingredients required are not at hand, or when it would be inconvenient to convey several separate bottles. The following, however, has been tried at the suggestion of the present writer, and pronounced excellent:—Ingredients—Best white wine vinegar, one pint; best olive oil, half-a-pint; vinegar of garlic, onion, or eschalot, two large tablespoonfuls.

Blacking (for Boots and Shoes.)—1. (Liquid.)—Preparation *a*. Ivory black, in fine powder, one pound; treacle, three quarters of a pound; sweet oil, two ounces; beer and vinegar, of each one pint. Rub together the first three until the oil be perfectly killed, then add the beer and vinegar.

b. Ivory-black and treacle, of each one pound; sweet oil and oil of vitriol, of each a quarter of a pound. Mix the first three as before, then gradually add the vitriol, diluted with thrice its weight of water; mix well, and let it stand for three hours, when it may be reduced to a proper consistence with water or sour beer.

c. Ivory-black and treacle, of each a

quarter of a pound; oil of vitriol, one ounce; sweet oil, 2 ounces; sour beer, one pint, as above.

d. Ivory-black, seven pounds; treacle, six pounds; sweet oil, one pound; oil of vitriol, half a pound; water, as much as required.

e. Ivory-black, three cwt.; crude molasses, 2 cwt.; linseed oil, three gallons; oil of vitriol, twenty pounds; water as required.

2. (Paste.)—Preparation *a.* Treacle, one pound; ivory-black, one pound and a quarter; sweet oil, two ounces; rub together as before, then add a little lemon juice or strong vinegar.

b. Ivory-black, two pounds; treacle, one pound; olive oil and oil of vitriol, quarter of a pound; water as before.

c. Ivory-black, twenty-eight pounds; treacle, twenty-one pounds; common oil, one quart; oil of vitriol, three pounds; water as before.

d. Ivory-black, three cwt.; common treacle, two cwt.; linseed oil and vinegar bottoms, of each three gallons; oil of vitriol, quarter cwt.; water as before.

Remarks.—The manipulations required for paste and liquid blacking are the same, the difference in the two being the quantity of liquid added. Thus, by diluting paste blacking with water or beer bottoms, it may be converted into liquid of a similar quality, and, by using less fluid matter, the ingredients of liquid blacking will produce paste blacking. One thing must, however, be observed, and that is, that the ivory-black used for liquid blacking must be reduced to a much finer powder than for paste blacking, as, if this be not attended to, it will settle to the bottom, and be with difficulty diffused again through the liquid. For those persons who do not like the use of blacking containing oil of vitriol, the first of the above forms, either for paste or liquid, may be adopted. The vitriol, however, greatly contributes to promote the shining properties of the blacking, and, in small quantities, is not so injurious to the leather as has been falsely represented, as it wholly unites itself to the lime of the phosphate contained in the ivory-black, and is thus partly neutralized. This is the reason why *lamp-black* should *never* be employed for blacking, as it has no earthy base to absorb or neutralize the acid, which would then prove very hurtful to the leather. Oil of vitriol is now employed in the manufacture of all the most celebrated shining blackings. The addition of white of egg, isinglass, gum-arabic, and similar articles to blacking, always proves injurious, as they tend to stiffen the leather, and to make it crack.—*Cooley's Cyclopædia of Practical Recipes.*

The following are communicated by correspondents:—

An economical Hair-wash.—Take one ounce of borax, half an ounce of camphor-powder—these ingredients fine—and dissolve them in one quart of boiling water. When cool, the solution will be ready for use. Damp the hair frequently. This wash not only cleanses and beautifies, but strengthens the hair, preserves the colour, and prevents early baldness. Cost, about sixpence a gallon.

Quinsy, or Ulcerated Sore-Throat.—Those who suffer from this distressing malady will be thankful to hear of a simple and efficacious mode of relief—namely, an onion poultice. Bake or roast three or four large onions, or half-a-dozen smaller ones, till soft. Peel them quickly, and beat them flat with a rolling-pin or glass bottle. Then put them directly into a thin muslin bag that will reach from ear to ear, and about three inches deep. Apply it speedily, and as warm as possible, to the throat. Keep it on day and night, changing it when the strength of the onions appears to be exhausted, and substituting fresh ones. Flannel must be worn round the neck after the poultice is removed.

Blowing out a Candle.—There is one small fact in domestic economy which is not generally known, but which is useful as saving time, trouble, and temper. If a candle be blown out holding it above you, the wick will not smoulder down, and may, therefore, be easily lighted again; but if blown upon downwards, the contrary is the case.

Cup in a Pie-Dish.—The custom of placing an inverted cup in a fruit pie, the cook will inform us, is to contain the juice while the pie is baking in the oven, and prevent its boiling over; and she is the more convinced in her theory, because when the pie is withdrawn from the oven, the cup will be found full of juice. When the cup is first put in the dish, it is full of cold air, and when the pie is placed in the oven, this air will expand by the heat and fill the cup, and will drive out all the juice and a portion of the present air it contains, in which state it will remain until removed from the oven, when the air in the cup will condense, and occupy a very small space, leaving the remainder to be filled with juice; but this does not take place till the danger of the juice boiling over is past. If a small glass tumbler is inverted in the pie, its contents can be examined into while it is in the oven, and it will be found what has been advanced is correct. Our own cook was very sceptical on this head, till she tried the experiment.—*Gower's Scientific Phenomena of Domestic Life.*

THE COUNTY COURTS.

A few words of advice to the humbler classes on these Courts may save them much expense and sorrow—*if remembered.*

The most earnest advice is, *Do not get into debt.*

'How can you keep out?' you ask. Why, by small savings. *Never waste a penny,* and manage well.

If, with all this, you are summoned for debt, mind these few directions:—

I. If possible, raise the money. If it is a small sum, and you justly owe it, pay it, and save the heavy Court fees. Many small debts are doubled by these.

II. If you cannot do this, go to the Court, and beg of the Judge to fix a small instalment on you.

III. Having these instalments fixed, *never* omit once to pay them, as an execution may issue against you for the whole, when a bailiff will be put in your house to take your goods.

IV. Never bring frivolous actions against any one, or you will have all costs to pay on both sides.

SERGEANT AP-DAVIS AP-LEEK'S DUEL WITH DR. BOLUS.

The following droll story, taken from an American paper, forms a good illustration of the monstrous fraud of quack nostrums,—as such we insert it.

About ten days ago, it so chanced that a couple of travellers met in a tavern, not fifty miles from Norval. One of them was a Professor of the healing art, or at least a distributor of the material for preserving life—in common English, he was a patent medicine merchant, who was vending nostrums of all tastes and colours to those who were weak in body and mind. Not a disease could be named, from a corn on the little toe, to stone in the bladder, for which he had not a certain and immediate cure: in fact, the only wonder was that people possessing a few Yorkers could be found so infatuated as to submit to the assault of the grim foe.

The other guest of the Crown, Thistle, Rose and Shamrock, was a little peppery Welshman, sporting a worsted wig, who, in the British army, had attained the rank of sergeant-major, and was now luxuriating on a snug half-pay, augmented by a gratuity on account of the loss of his nose, which had been shot off, bitten off, or sabred off in some of the monster rows composing the Peninsular war.

For a season Sergeant-Major Ap-Davis Ap-Leek and Dr. Bunkum Bolus got on in the most social and friendly manner; but, as often happens in similar circumstances, the "malt having got above the meal," a quarrel took place, which eventuated in the Welshman pulling the probocis of the man of drugs, an indignity which could by no possibility be retaliated upon himself. Not, however, to be behind hand in civility, "Cure all" made free to discharge a phial of some hideous bug-destroyer at the sconce of the fiery native of Wales, which, taking effect upon the right eye, almost inflicted upon him the pains and penalties of the plague of darkness.

To make a long story short, Sergeant-Major Ap-Leek, when he had partially recovered the use of vision, dispatched, without delay, per a military friend, (Corporal Foggo, of Trafalgar,) a challenge to Dr. Bunkum, to meet him forthwith in the ball-room of the hotel, with any weapons he might choose, then and there to wash out in blood, the stain inflicted upon outraged honour.

Bolus at first thought of pleading his profession, and declining the invitation on the score that his business was to cobble up frail and tottering lives, and not to destroy good constitutions. However, as the matter was publicly known, he got apprehensive that should he shirk the combat, he would be looked upon as a coward, and consequently be injured in his profession, which, above all others, requires a bold front and a boasting tongue.

At the appointed time, therefore, he entered the ball-room attended by full private Jock McLeod, who became his friend on the payment of a pint of "Gooderham's best," and the promise of as much again should victory decide in favour of his principal. The sergeant-major was already in attendance, having on a table before him, two uncouthly, ill-favoured horse-pistols, which he had managed to hunt up, as likewise a couple of rusty swords, a spit and a pitch-fork. Pointing to these ghastly blood-tappers, the sergeant informed his antagonist that, as the challenged man, he had the choice of weapons, and accordingly he had provided the choice variety which lay before them. Bunkum, however, was by no means disposed to fix upon any of the instruments. He thanked the sergeant for conceding to him the choice of evils, and then, with much solemnity, he produced a small box with two pills—the one is poisoned, the other not. 'I will take one and my adversary shall take the other; he shall have the first choice—we will have the pills put into our mouths by our opponent's seconds; and by the evening one of us will have to be measured for his last suit of pine or oak!'

Any one, with half an eye, could discover, that the bold noseless warrior shrunk a little at this novel proposal, but there was no help for it—the quack had decided and the pills must be bolted. After a short interval the seconds placed the pills in the mouths of the parties, who forthwith sat down to wait in anxious suspense the result of the duel.

For a while the sergeant kept himself composed and seemingly indifferent, but as the evening wore on, he became fidgety and nervous; the ticking of the Yankee clock sounded like demons chirping over his doom. By six o'clock he had nearly worked himself into a fever, and when eight struck he started up, impelled irresistibly to see how his foeman was faring.

Dr. Bunkum Bolus had retired long before and was sitting in the eating-room as cool as a cucumber, discussing a mutton chop, and a mug of Brain's ale. Ap-Leek beholding his unconcern, and being convinced that he felt something within him far from canny, came to the conclusion that he had indeed bolted the poisoned pill and that his hours and his pension were destined to come to a speedy end. Bunkum, who was on the whole a good-natured soul, took pity upon the forlorn man of war, and invited him to recruit his spirits by partaking of his refreshments. 'How can you expect me to have any appetite,' was the reply, 'when your infernal poison is running through my veins like fire. I am sure I am heartily sorry that I threw away my life in so foolish and ridiculous a manner.' 'Say you so,' said the honest quack, 'then I may as well put you out of pain. Here is Swain's Anti-poison Protector, price two dollars per bottle — drink a table spoonful, and I'll insure you from all risk and danger.' In an instant the sergeant tabled his ten shillings — drunk up the elixir at a gulp—and in a few minutes declared that he felt as well as ever he did in all his born days.

Need we say that the report of this WONDERFUL CURE ran like wild-fire through the vicinity, and that before twelve hours Bolus had disposed of all his anti-poison stock.

But the cream of the joke is yet to come. Elated with his success, Dr Bunkum Bolus gave a grand blow-out previous to his departure, at which, having imbibed a horn too much, he lost command of himself and let the cat out of the bag. What then was the astonishment and shame of Sergeant Ap-Leek and the chagrin of the purchasers of the infallible specific, when it was revealed that both the pills were composed solely of good wholesome bread, and that the specific was merely the Credit water, slightly tinged with tobacco juice!

Two good results have had their origin in this adventure. Affairs of honour "falsely so called," are now for a quarter of a century to come, supremely ridiculous in Norval, Georgetown, Hornby, and the other cities, towns, and villages which adjoin the scene of this famous duel. And again, the eyes of the lieges are opened to the monstrous fraud of quack nostrums, and the facility with which advertising pick-pockets may extract coin from penury itself.

We may only add that the facts narrated above are substantially true.

SCRAPS FROM AN OBSERVER'S NOTE-BOOK.

I OFTEN hear working-men complain about being forced to pay taxes. I have thought government does not force them to tax themselves by taking strong drinks, tobacco, or snuff, which amounts to more than all the taxes to government twice told.

"Think twice before you speak once." I believe some people speak twice before they think once.

I am acquainted with an old bachelor, who loves to be telling the miseries of married men. My slight knowledge of physiognomy teaches me that he is not the happiest man alive.

I have heard many women complaining of their husbands' neglect of home. A spoonful of honey will keep more bees in the hive, than will ten of vinegar.

How frequently do we hear parents say, 'My children are so very unruly!' I believe young minds are something like young trees: much depends upon training.

Many women [and men also] complain of having too much work. If they attended to their own business only, they would do much to ease themselves.

THE YOUNG GARDENER.

BY MARTIN DOYLE.—CHAPTER V.

As Mr. Primrose and his pupil — for such we may consider Richard on this occasion—were on their way to the park, the gardener explained to the boy the objects of budding and grafting, namely, to unite plants in such a manner as multiplies them, and improves their qualities. God, said he, gives us plants in abundance, but they are to be altered and improved by culture ; they may be viewed as rude materials to be wrought into something much better. For instance, we find a wild apple-tree in a hedge, but its natural fruit is so sour and ill-flavoured that we cannot eat it : by cutting away its branches and grafting on its stem one or more shoots of a good apple-tree, those shoots are nourished by its sour and crabbed nurse, and they grow into a tree, inheriting the good properties of that from which they were taken without partaking of the bad ones of the fir nurse. By grafting, excellent pear-trees are raised, not only on the wild pear and wild apple-tree, (which are near relations) but also on the medlar, the quince, the mountain-ash or the white-thorn, all of which are of the same order of plants. Peach and apricot-trees are raised by taking buds of those trees and inserting them in the stem of a plum, whose hardy roots are thus made useful for supporting the delicate peach or apricot, the natural roots of which, would fail in our cold soil. The most beautiful varieties of rose-trees are propagated by transferring buds from such varieties to the wild rose. By budding and grafting delicate sorts on hardy plants, the delicate ones are rendered hardy. 'Pray,' said Richard, 'what is the difference between budding and grafting?' 'I had better tell you what each of them is and you can then see the difference.—Grafting which is chiefly used with fruit-trees, is the joining of two parts, called the scion and the stock.' 'What is a scion,' asked Richard. 'It is a part,' said Mr. Primrose, 'of a young shoot with a few eyes or buds cut off with it.' 'And what is a stock?' 'The stock is the stem of a tree or other plant, on which the scion is to be grafted. Budding which you shall often see me practising in summer on rose-trees and some of the greenhouse plants is the inserting of a single bud, with a portion of bark along with it into the stem of another plant; very slight stocks, even shoots of the same year will answer for receiving a bud. Many buds, too, may be budded on one stem, or on a branch of a stem, so as to form a complete tree at once. Roses are more generally budded than grafted. 'I will ask you but one question more, sir, about it now,' continued the inquiring boy; 'which is better, budding or grafting?' 'That,' said Mr. Primrose, 'depends on the nature of the plants. Budding answers better with some, grafting with others. Grafted trees produce fruit two years sooner than budded ones; therefore we graft all the fruit-trees with which grafting will succeed. Most of the stone-fruit trees throw out gum when they are grafted; they are therefore either budded or propagated from cuttings. Some trees propagate more readily by budding, one great advantage of which is, that when a tree is scarce, a new plant can be got from every bud. When grafting fails in spring, budding may succeed in summer; so that in budding and grafting we have two strings to our bow.'

Conversing thus usefully and pleasantly, the gardener and the boy entered the Park-garden, and Mr. Primrose lost no time in opening his grafting-knife, and preparing some shoots from a choice apple-tree, which he cut into small portions, each of which had two or three buds. These portions of shoots were *scions.* Of these he took Number 1, which he cut at one end in the form of a wedge. Number 2 he shaped into something like a tongue at one end. Number 3 he cleft underneath, so that the bottom resembled the underside of a saddle. The stock for Number 1 was the stem of a crab apple-tree, cut slanting across at the top, (as all stocks should be cut) in which he made a cleft (taking care not to divide the pith) long enough to admit the scion Number 1; this cleft he kept open with his knife while he was fitting in the scion in such a manner that its rind coincided exactly with that of the stock, in order that the sap might not be turned from its due course. When he withdrew the blade, the cleft squeezed the wedged scion as firmly as if it were a vice.

"Now the cleft rind inserted graffs receive,
And yields an offspring more than nature gives"

Two or three scions might thus be *cleft-grafted* in a stout stock. The stock for Number 2, which was but little if at all thicker than this scion, was *tongued* by Mr. Primrose at top, to coincide with the tongue of the scion. This was *tongue-grafting* or *whip-grafting.* The spliced parts were tied together with bass mat, and covered with a clay plaster to keep out air and keep in moisture, until they should be healed and become one piece. The crown of a stock for the scion Number 3 was cut into a wedge-like shape to receive the scion Number 3, which fitted down on it like a saddle on its wooden frame. This was *saddle-grafting.*

'Now,' said Mr. Primrose, 'you shall see how we almost always bud.' He chose a stock of the height he wished, and then with his budding-blade, he made a cut across the rind near the top of the stock into the very wood, and then from the middle he made another cut about an inch and a half downwards, and also quite into the tree. This was a T in shape. Then holding the scion in one hand, he with the other hand cut a bud from it, in a way which must be seen to be understood with a piece called the *shield* along with it; he next slipped in the bud after some neat preparation, between the wood and bark, to the bottom of the slit, and cut away the upper part of the shield to fit exactly into the horizontal cut of the T, so evenly that the descending sap might enter into its bark. Richard assisted in tying the united part with moistened bass mat, leaving the eye of the bud a peep-hole above.

These principal methods of grafting were enough for Richard to learn for the present, and they afforded him subject enough for *thinking* upon, while they employed his knife and his hands in pretty sharp practice for at least some part of each day during the next fortnight. He was quite full of the subject of grafting, which had now been partly opened to him, and curious to find out when grafting was first practised. This was a point beyond Mr. Primrose's knowledge; but he asked the boy if he did not recollect something concerning grafting or graffing said by St Paul? 'Oh, yes!' said Richard, I can find it out; here it is:' Romans xi. It was no novelty, then, in his time, nor perhaps for a long period before.

Could any boy have to complain of a hum-drum yawning life, who, besides attending his school business, and learning lessons at home, employed himself whenever he could in some or other of these things:—digging, forking, trenching, ridging, levelling, hoeing, raking, scraping, sweeping, dibbling, planting, and sowing; rolling, thinning, pricking out, transplanting, making hot-beds, weeding, earthing, propagating by layers, suckers, cuttings, &c.; whip-grafting, cleft-grafting, crown-grafting, saddle-grafting, side-grafting, T-budding, shalope-budding, shield-budding; winter pruning, summer pruning; splitting, clipping, training, nailing, staking, tying, potting, watering, syringing; seed-saving, root-saving, &c., &c.

One of the real blessings of life is useful and agreeable occupation. A gardener may have this all the year round. A garden is said to afford the purest of pleasures. Man in his innocency was placed in a garden. The greatest men have found repose and happiness in it; and Richard Giles, if he could have envied King Solomon, would have envied him more for his garden, which contained sweet-smelling and showy flowers, than for his wisdom His vineyard at Baalhamon was the possession of the wise man of which Richard thought most, and Cincinnatus planting cabbages was one of his heroes.

The evenings were still long enough for much candle-light reading, and Richard searched Mr. Primrose's books for information on budding and grafting, and tried to understand the subject. The hard words were made rather easy to him by explanation and repetition; and even the jaw-breakers of botany, as he looked at them, had no great terrors for him. He hoped, in a year or two, to learn something of that beautiful science, and he resolved in the meantime, with the occasional assistance of a kind gentleman of the village, to study Latin, and perhaps a little of Greek, sufficient to enable him, at least, to pronounce the botanical names of classes and species of plants without the danger of being laughed at as a blunderer.

HOME LOVE.

Home love has a sweet poetry of its own, created out of the simplest materials, and haunting, more or less, the secret recesses of every human heart; or rather, it is divided into a thousand separate poems, full of individual interest, and little, quiet touches of feeling, and golden recollections, interwoven with our very being!—common things, hallowed and made beautiful by the spell of memory and association; and owing all their glory to the halo of our own fond affection. The eye of a stranger rests coldly on such revelations; their simple pathos is hard to be understood; and they smile oftentimes at the quaintness of those passages which make others weep. With the beautiful instinct of true affection, home love retains only the good. There were clouds then, even as now, darkening the horizon of daily life, and breaking tears or wild storms above our heads; but we remember nothing save the sunshine, and fancy somehow that it has never shone so bright since! How little it took to make us happy in those days, aye, and sad also; but it was a pleasant sadness, for we wept only over a flower or a book. But let us turn to our first poem; and in using this term we allude, of course, to the poetry of idea, rather than that of the measure; beauty of which is so often lost to us from a vague feeling that it cannot exist without rhythm. But pause and listen first of all, gentle reader, to the living testimony of a poet heart, brimful, and gushing over with home love:—"There are not, in the unseen world, voices more gentle and more true, that may be more implicitly relied on, or that are so certain to give none but the tenderest counsel, as the voices in which the spirits of the fireside and the hearth address themselves to human kind!"—*Belle Assemblee.*

Fireside Pastimes.

THE INTELLECTUAL FEAST.

FIRST COURSE.

A foreign country?
An unruly member?
A well-powdered head?

The Divine part of a man?
Sauce of little creatures?
Imitation soup?
A lean wife?
Sauce of man's ruin?

Useful birds?
A female employment, and a constant follower of man?

SECOND COURSE.

Roots of Israel?
A thing of no consequence?
Stewed upstarts?

The Grand Seignor's dominions?
Sauce of the staff of life?
A young simpleton?
Sauce of soft grease?
The most becoming head-dress?

A sign of the zodiac?
Some blasts of air?
Some sweet warblers?

DESSERT.

The first ruin of man?
A sincere Dutch Prince?
A stalk of wheat, with the autumnal beauty of the woods?

Food for the gods, with an outside skin?
An interesting game, and food for squirrels?
To grieve, and the origin of grief?
A material part of a house, and what grows in the hedges?

A stop in music, and wild bird's delight?
A foolish bird, with what grows in the hedges?

WINES AND SPIRITS.

A province in France?
A sailor's welcome prospect?
The capital of a foreign country?

A high hill?
A cell?
The produce of a useful animal, and an amusing periodical?
A long tree?

A Portuguese island?
A soldier's habitation?
Counterfeit agony?

ENIGMATICAL TREES.

What's the sociable tree and the dancing tree?
And the tree that is nearest the sea?
The most yielding tree? and the busiest tree?
And the tree where ships may be?
The languishing tree? the least selfish tree?
And the tree that bears a curse?
The chronologist's tree? the fisherman's tree?
And the tree like an Irish nurse?
The tell-tale tree? and the traitor's tree?
And the tree that's the warmest clad?
What's laymen's restraint? and the housewife's tree?
And the tree that makes me sad?
What's the tree that with death would benight you?
And the tree that your wants will supply?
And the tree that to travel invites you?
And the tree that forbids you to die?
The tree that will fight? the tree that obeys me?
And the tree that never stands still?
The tree that got up? and the tree that is lazy?
And the tree that's not up nor down hill?
The tree to be kissed? and the dandiest tree?
And the tree that makes ships to go forth?
The tree of the people? the unhealthiest tree?
And the tree whose wood faces the north?
The emulous tree? the industrious tree?
And the tree that warms mutton when cold?
The reddish-brown tree? the reddish-blue tree?
And what each must become ere he's old?
The tree in a bottle? the tree in a fog?
And the tree that bids the joints pain?
The tree that grows deep in an Irish bog?
And that which of mother and child bears the name?

The treacherous tree ? the contemptible tree ?
And the tree to which wives are inclined ?
The tree which causes each townsman to flee ?
And what round fair ancles they bind ?
The tree that's entire ? and the tree that is split ?
The tree we half give to our doctors when ill ?
The tree that we offer to friends when we meet ?
And the tree we may use as a quill ?
The tree that's immortal ? the trees that are not ?
And the trees that must pass through the fire ?
The tree that in Latin we ne'er can forget ?
And in English we all must admire ?
The Egyptian plague-tree ? and the tree that's a pot ?
And what round itself doth entwine ?
And the tree that in billiards must always be near ?
And the tree that by Cockneys is turned into wine ?
The tree that the warrior prizes aright,
When he wishes to meet the foe ?
And what, when vanquishing in fight,
Is twined around his brow ?

HEALTH AND ITS BLESSINGS.

We are entitled to conclude, that if we have been fortunate enough to owe our birth and education to healthy, well-informed, and industrious parents ; if from our earliest infancy we have constantly breathed a pure, fresh, and dry air, and have been permitted to give to our limbs their natural motion in daily exercise ; if our persons and our apparel have always been remarkable for strict cleanliness ; if in regard to our food we have invariably observed moderation, regularly and implicitly drinking at the same time nothing but pure water, or very diluted wine ; if our houses are orderly, clean, dry, and well ventilated ; if we have been trained from our youth to assiduity, industry, and method ; if our reason and virtue have been fortified and improved by instruction and example ; and our passions taught, by wholesome discipline, not to trouble our spirit ; if, in fine, we have learned to fear God, love mankind, and do justice to all—we may confidently expect to enjoy continued health, and the happiness which results therefrom—with a well-grounded hope, moreover, of prolonging our mental and physical powers to the latest period of our existence."—*Dr. Granville.*

RURAL HINTS.

Bees.—As an old Bee-keeper, I may probably be allowed to say a word, at this season, to those who make a practice of destroying these valuable insects for the purpose of obtaining possession of their honey. I was at one time addicted to a custom which I now regard as a relic of barbarism. The cottager ought to be taught that all the bees destroyed at Michaelmas, are the young ones of the departing summer and autumn ; being precisely those that ought to be spared to do the work of the spring. It is ascertained now that bees are very short lived, six to eight months being the limit of their duration. Modern experience has proved the entire possibility of doing away with the fumes of brimstone; for which can be substituted, some narcotic substance, which stupefies the bees temporarily. During this state of insensibility they may be transferred to some neighbouring stock, for future enjoyment and profit. In a former number you alluded to that useful little work, Taylor's "*Bee-keeper's Manual,*" in which will be found full details as to the best mode of proceeding, with directions for making the needful apparatus and procuring the requisite material. By following the instructions therein given, I consider I have realized a considerable annual saving, to say nothing of the satisfaction arising from the feeling that I am no longer a *wholesale murderer.*

Dried Flowers.—Many persons living in towns, are in the habit of taking walks into the country on Sunday afternoons, and on long summer evenings. It would add much to the pleasure of these walks to carefully gather all the wild flowers you can discover ; they will be looked at with pleasure by those unable to go so far, and if dried will make a nice collection of specimens. The sheets containing these specimens are called an herbarium. The best way to make one is as follows : when the flower is gathered and before it begins to wither, it must be spread very smooth and flat between some old newspapers, so that all the blossoms may be fairly open. A moderate pressure of books or large weights can be applied. After a few days it will be sufficiently dry to remove. Sheets of writing or wrapping paper may then be used Cut very neatly narrow strips and make two or more incisions or slits in the sheet on each side of the dried plant, through which put the strips.

This is a better plan than using paste and gum. At the bottom of the sheet, write the name of the plant, the date when gathered, the place and town where it grew; the sheets are best kept in a strong piece of wrapping paper or portfolio, and tied up with a string of mosses form really an elegant collection. They flourish in winter on old trunks of trees, hanging over rocks or peeping from cracks in walls and fences.

Miniature Garden.—It is often an amusement..to invalids and children to watch the growth of mustard-seed, when spread over a piece of flannel, which should be cut round and placed on the top of a soup plate filled with water; after being in the dark a few days, the seeds will sprout, and you may obtain a little dish of salad in about a fortnight's time. The plate will require refilling as the flannel gradually soaks up the water.

Corn in a Tumbler.—A few grains of wheat sown on a little soft cotton wool, floating on the water of a tumbler half full, look very pretty.

COTTAGE FARMER'S CALENDAR.

BY MARTIN DOYLE—OCTOBER.

THE FIELD.

The sowing of wheat on clover leys, fallows, &c., is now to be commenced. A previous dressing of quick lime will have been the best preparation. Where farm-yard manure has been applied instead, it ought to have been ploughed into the ground immediately after being put out. Some slovenly farmers are in the habit of letting it lie for many days in small heaps on the land, as if they were desirous of getting rid of the best properties of the manure. In *rainy* weather, indeed, the loss is comparatively trifling, if the manure be left on the surface, especially if it be spread over it, in which case the soil imbibes the valuable substances washed from it; but in hot dry weather the waste of exposed dung is considerable. No cultivator who understands the properties of putrescent manure, will leave it unmixed with the soil an hour longer than he can avoid doing so. In Ireland, where so much deficiency in farming is observable, this particular negligence is not seen; because the English practice of applying putrescent manures to wheat is scarcely known there. Lime, or compost of lime and earth, is the favourite manure for wheat, in that country where all putrescent manures are reserved for the potato and turnip, or other such root crops exclusively. The quantity of seed wheat wasted, even by some of the best farmers in England, is enormous. The storms of July last laid prostrate many fields of wheat, because they had been too heavily seeded. The roots being crowded together, had not feeding room, or space for expanding and taking firm hold of the soil, and therefore the stems were too feeble to bear up the ear when violent rain fell upon them. Instead of destroying rooks at the time of sowing, and first appearance of the plants, for picking up grains along with grubs and worms, which are their principal food, and which those supposed thieves are most serviceable in destroying, it would have been better for the farmer if he had encouraged them to take away one-third of the seed he had sown. Even where the drill machine is used, the uabntity of seed sown is too abundant; the breadth between the drills is usually too narrow, and the portion of seed dropped in the drill too great.

The Dibbling of Wheat cannot be too strongly recommended where labourers are numerous, and the cry for employment consequently urgent. On a very minute scale, the practicability and economy of this mode of sowing cannot be denied; and experience is beginning to show that dibbling may be executed most beneficially on a large scale too. We may mention (on the authority of the *Daily News*) that in one of the allotment gardens of Horsham, one-eighth of an acre was equally divided; one part was sown with broadcast, at the rate of two bushels of seed wheat to the acre; the other was dibbled with seed, at the rate of two gallons of seed to the acre. The part dibbled produced at the rate of thirteen sacks to the acre; the other produced at the rate of ten sacks to the acre. On a very large scale we have known *one-third* more of produce to have been obtained, on an average of ten years, from dibbled than from broadcast-sown wheat. The practice, however, of thin sowing is only to be recommended on land of a quality well suited to the grain (of whatever kind), and in a high state of fertility. In such favourable case (for wheat) the holes may be made fifteen or sixteen inches apart every way: seven or eight grains should be dropped in each hole. Experiments have shown that the greatest produce has been obtained when seven grains were sown in each hole, the distances being the same in the different cases. The facility of hoeing between the plants, and thus promoting their free tillering and the perfect weeding of the ground, is a principal benefit obtained by dibbling. The most efficacious and safe steep for the seed is sulphate of soda and lime. Next to this, steeping the grain in salt pickle strong enough to bear up an egg, is to be recommended.

Beans.—Dibble *winter* beans on strong land, in the manner described in the February number of this year.

Harvest your late potatos when the haulm is quite withered, and the land in a dry state for forking out the crop. It is to be hoped that where blight injured the stems early in autumn, they were cut down; in this case, the tubers may be found in a better state than has been expected. The practice of making a pit for the tubers in the field should be abandoned. They should be laid rather on a raised platform than on a sunk bed, in order to keep them dry. The withered stalks, even if free from disease, should not be laid over the tubers, as they soon become damp and mouldy. A covering of earth alone over the *pyramids* of tubers (which will be the better for a sprinkling of dry coal ashes) will be a sufficient protection for them. A dry floor, however, in a cool situation and without light, is preferable for them to any out-of-door covering. Tainted should be carefully removed from sound tubers, and a frequent examination and sorting of them may be necessary.

Cattle and Pigs will derive much food in this month from cabbages, which may be considered the first course of the winter dietary. Towards the end of the month, turnips will be added to their fare. The tailings of corn and fresh barley-meal will prepare porkers for the table. Let there be a steady resolution to keep all the live stock in confinement. It should be remembered, that the same quantity of land which will feed one beast in pasture, will feed three all the year round in house, and produce nine times as much manure.

THE GARDEN.

The Kitchen Garden.—Much of the routine garden work of the last month is to be pursued in the present one. Take up carrots, parsnips, and beet, else worms will injure them. Cut the crowns completely off, and lay the roots in sand or coal ashes. Some persons, after cutting off their leaves close under the crown, let parsnips remain in the ground, covering them over with three or four inches of earth, and digging them out from time to time. Their freshness is completely preserved by this practice. Earth-up celery and winter cabbages, and plant cauliflowers closely in frames, or on a bed with hoops over it to support mats or oiled calico occasionally. Some of those sown in August may be potted. Put out winter lettuces freely; if they outlive frost, most of them will be, when grown to a seeding height, excellent for pig-feeding, and the table will have been supplied. Lettuces that have headed may be preserved for a considerable time by laying them closely together in an upright position, and throwing a mat over them in frosty weather. Prick out nonpareil and early York cabbages in beds or borders. Cut parsley, and when it is quite dry pack it in paper bags for purposes of cookery. Rope onions, and take up gherkins for pickling. Before you put a coat of short dung on the asparagus bed, scatter salt freely over it. Collect leaves for hotbeds, or for linings; they should be heaped together for about a month; if well trampled, they will heat, and then, if mixed with one-fourth part of litter from the stable, they will become an excellent material for a hotbed, or for lining one.

The Fruit Garden.—Let strawberries be dressed now (if this has not been yet done), and new plantations made of runners that have well rooted, and allow them plenty of room.

The Flower Garden.—Pot rooted layers of carnations, &c., and put them into a window, or under a frame, for a few days. Prepare some protection for auriculas. Plant spring flowering plants, such as hepaticas and polyanthuses, and propagate pansies by offsets. Plant offsets of tulips in carefully prepared beds, and then go on to plant the choice bulbs generally. Keep cuttings that have not perfectly rooted moderately warm and moist, and keep those that have rooted very cool at night, and open to the air by day, unless in frosty weather. By this treatment the plants become *hardened*, as gardeners say.

Rapid Butter Making.—A few days ago was exhibited before the Lord Mayor, the Lady Mayoress, and several of their friends, in the justice-room, an American churn, which in ten minutes produced four pounds of butter from four quarts of cream. The merits of the invention were palpable. One of its recommendations is its great simplicity. It operates on a beautiful principle, as was acknowledged by all who witnessed the experiment. The mechanical action of the air, which is mingled with the cream in such a manner that a thorough separation of the particles takes place, prevents the cream from frothing on the surface, and does its work with astonishing rapidity, and in the most complete manner. The butter was washed in the churn, by pouring off the milk, putting in cold water, and pressing the butter against the sides of the churn, moving the dish backwards and forwards, and changing the water until it remained clear.

The Late Meteor.—Our readers will remember the report of a large and striking meteor witnessed in this country on the 12th of February last. From the log of an American vessel we extract the following interesting notice of the phenomenon:—"February 12th, lat. 40. 10, long. 64. 58, at 8 P.M., saw what appeared to be a large globe of fire, about ten feet in diameter. It appeared in the westward, and passed east; moved very slow, and was in sight about one minute. It was about ten feet high, creating a very brilliant light, and an awful appearance, causing the whole horizon to be as light as noonday, when it fell and burst into a thousand pieces."—*Birmingham Paper.*

VARIETIES.

A NEW OVEN.—We yesterday saw tested a new oven, invented by Mr. M. Fitch, Chelmsford, which, for dispatch and economy of fuel, will be deemed a god-send by all good housewives. The furnace is a circular fire-cylinder, 8½ inches diameter; the fire divides at the lower end right and left into two cylinders of 6 inches diameter, and the heat ascends at each angle of the front of the oven, and enters two deflectors, which it traverses backwards and forwards, so as to secure equal heat all over the oven. Beneath the furnace is another oven for cooking joints. We saw a bushel of bread beautifully baked, and four shoulders of mutton cooked at an expenditure of 8½ lbs. of coals, which is a fraction less than 1d. After the heat is thus got up, the same could be done for one halfpenny, and the oven kept in operation all day for 3½d. or 4d.—*Chelmsford Chronicle.*

TO TELL THE NUMBER THAT ANY PERSON SHALL THINK OF, BE IT EVER SO GREAT.—Bid the party double the number which he has fixed on in his mind; which done, bid him multiply the sum of them both by five, and give the product (which he will never refuse to do, it being so far above the number thought of), from which, if you cut off the last figure of the product (which will always be a cypher), the number left will be that first thought upon. As, for example, let the number thought of be 26, which, doubled, makes 52; that, multiplied by 5, produces 260; then, if you take away the cypher which is in the last place, there will remain 26, the number thought of.

HAPPY OLD FARMER.—Said a venerable old farmer of eighty years to a relation on a visit to him: 'I have lived on this farm more than half a century. I have no desire to change my residence—I have no wish to be any richer than I now am. I have worshipped the God of my fathers with the same people more than forty years. During that period I have scarcely ever been absent from the sanctuary on the Sabbath, and I have never lost more than one communion season. I have never been confined to a bed of sickness for a single day. The blessings of God have been richly spread round me, and I have made up my mind long ago, that, if I wished to be happier, I must have more religion than I have at present.'

SPINSTERS.—Formerly women were prohibited from marrying until they had spun a set of bed furniture; and, till their wedding, were consequently called *spinsters*, which continues to this day in all legal proceedings.

DEPEND ON YOURSELF.—Bad luck, as well as mischance and misfortune, are all the daughters of misconduct, and sometimes the mother of success, prosperity, and advancement. To be thrown on one's resources, is to be cast into the very lap of fortune. Had Franklin entered Philadelphia with a thousand dollars in his pocket, instead of one shilling and ninepence, as he did, in all probability he would have gone on a "spree" instead of hunting up employment, and died at thirty-five from driving tandem teams and drinking brandy smashers, instead of living to the green old age of eighty, and dying a philosopher, whose amusement was the taming of the thunderbolts and bottling up lightning. Had Napoleon's father been the owner of a princely estate, his son would have never got to be emperor. A good kick out of doors is better than all the rich uncles in the world. One never tries to swim so hard as when he has to do it or drown. To be a rich man's son, is the greatest misfortune that can befal a young man, mentally speaking. Who fill our offices? not the children of the rich or the sons of the opulent.—*Knickerbocker.*

The implantation of a virtue is the eradication of a vice. It will cost one man more to keep down a rising passion than to do a brilliant deed. It will try another more to keep back a sparkling but corrupt thought, which his wit had suggested, but which his religion checks, than it would to give a large sum in charity.—*H. More.*

The Corner.

HOW TO MAKE AN APOLOGY FOR THOSE WHO OFFEND US.—Let us consider the circumstances of the person who has offended us. Is he a child? His youth will plead in his defence. Is he an aged person? Allowance must be made for his years and infirmities. Is he poor? His poverty should move our compassion. Is he rich? His wealth lays him under a temptation to forget himself. Is he a wise man? Let respect for his abilities soften our resentment. Is he a weak and foolish man? He knows no better. Is he a wicked man? We need not wonder at his ill treatment of us; it is his general character. He fears not to offend God; and why should we think it strange that he offends us? Is he a good man? It is a pity to harbour resentment against so worthy a character. The person who is the greatest adept at finding out some reason why he should be always ready to forgive an injury and never inclined to resent one, is the person who most certainly possesses the true secret of happiness in this world. He realizes the fulfilment of the beatitude, "Blessed are the meek, for they shall inherit the earth."

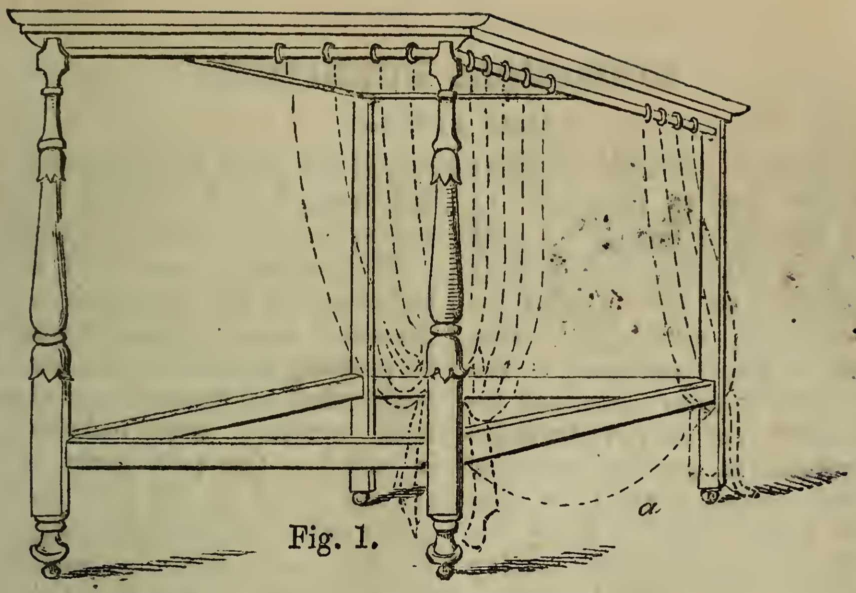


Fig. 1.

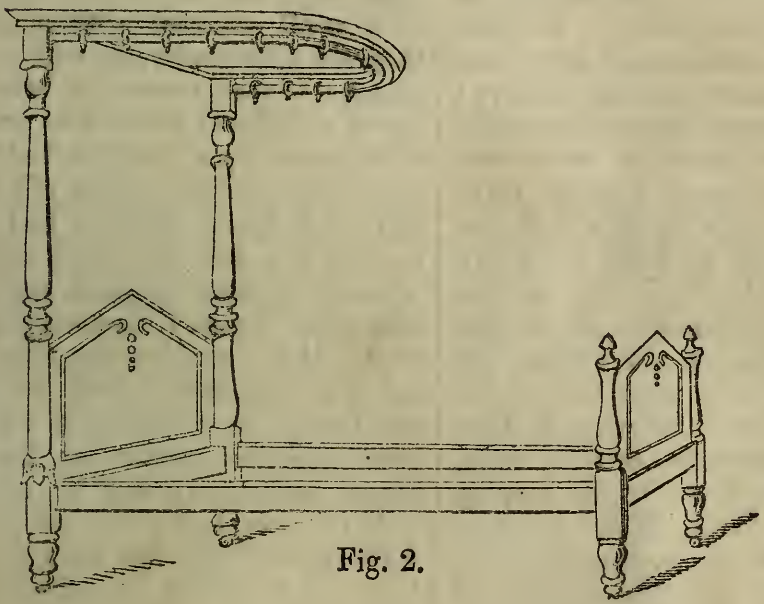
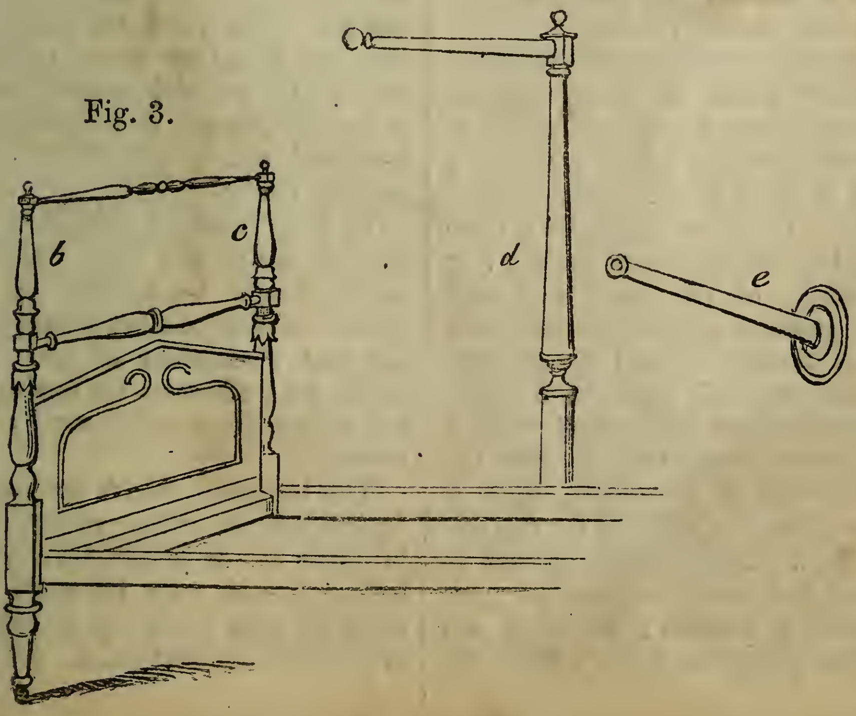


Fig. 2.

Fig. 3.



HOUSEHOLD FURNITURE.

FIRST ARTICLE.

Among the means of domestic comfort there is scarcely any so important as what is called household furniture ; most persons must have felt that much of their well-being depends on the articles intended for our daily and nightly use. Such a branch of family economy is one that we may worthily enter upon, and we intend this as the first of a series of articles which shall embrace all essential points of the subject, and perhaps at the same time convey a few useful hints to those persevering mechanics and others who employ themselves during spare hours in making up articles which add to the comforts or conveniences of their family. A little attention to these matters is of more consequence than many persons believe : keeping up appearances within reasonable bounds is a very laudable endeavour. Appearances are, in many respects, realities : children brought up in a well-conducted home, where they see every day a shelf or two of books, a few tasteful vases or other ornaments, or pictures on the wall, clean curtains and blinds, and well-swept carpet, look upon them all as realities, and without knowing it they grow up with a conviction of their value, and in most cases prove it, by keeping their own households in order. A proper and becoming attention to appearances is often a warrant for true respectability of character ; and it is sometimes said, that you never really know people till you have seen what their in-door life is.

A want of system with regard to household furniture leads to inconvenience. We frequently see an intermixture of articles quite unsuited to the place they occupy and to each other. Sometimes it is a handsome table too large for a room in which every thing else is shabby : or an over supply of ugly and awkward chairs : or, perhaps, a showy carpet, with nothing else to match. But the greatest mistakes are commonly made in the bedroom ; generally the bedstead and window are so overloaded with drapery, that the circulation of air is prevented, light is kept out, and means afforded for the collection of dust. Many people are apt to neglect their bed-rooms because they are seldom seen by visitors ; provided the parlour looks pretty well, they leave the rest of the house to take care of itself,—a bad practice, and one that is not at all a true means of keeping up appearances.

We pass nearly one-third of our life in bed-rooms, a fact which shows how important it is that these apartments should be properly cared for. We shall therefore begin what we have to say about household furniture with bedsteads. What is called a four-post bedstead, is nearly always found in the best rooms of the upper and middle classes, and occasionally in those of well-to-do mechanics. Of these it may be said that they require a large, high, and airy room ; when placed in a small chamber with a low ceiling they are a deformity, as well as inconvenience : in such rooms it is better to have one of a different make. The present plan of constructing a four-post bedstead is a great improvement on that of a few years ago : the heavy valances and draperies at the top are now done away with, whereby greater lightness and space are obtained. Figure 1, represents a bedstead of this sort. Besides the usual lining at the head and roof, called the headcloth and tester, there is nothing but the curtains and the valance, or base, below. These curtains, as will be seen, do not hide the two foot-posts : to prevent indistinctness, they are shown by dotted lines ; and, as they are attached to the rings by hooks, they can be put up and taken down at any time with very little trouble. The poles on which the rings slide are made of wood, and fit, at each end, into a round hole bored into the top of the bedposts. A polished or painted footboard can be introduced according to taste or choice.

In some houses a rubbish-hole is established under the bed : this on no account should be suffered to exist ; all should be clear to allow of frequent sweeping and circulation of air. The latter would be facilitated by having the bases cut of the shape as shewn by the curved line *a*.

The bedstead which we consider most desirable for all ordinary purposes is shewn in figure 2. It is called a canopy French bedstead, and may be made very handsome or very plain—of mahogany, birch, or painted—as best suits. By not having the tall foot-posts, it does not crowd a room so much as one of figure 1, while it affords all that is necessary for comfort or delicacy. If preferred, it may be used without a head-cloth; and the corners of the canopy may be made square instead of round.

Figure 3, is a double-railed French bedstead; or, as the makers say, with "extra standards," which serve to keep the curtains well up above the sleeper. These extra standards, *b* and *c*, are made to screw in and out, so that the curtain can be raised or lowered, as may be required: a very convenient arrangement. The two ends being both alike, only one is shown in the drawing. The curtain is supported by the pole *d*, from which it hangs, each way, over the head and foot, nearly to the floor. This is the most simple bed-furniture that can be contrived, and can be taken down at a minute's notice. Instead of having the cross-arm fixed to the upright pole, it may be made, as at *e*, and fastened to the wall by means of the round bracket. Or a ring, or Cupid's bow, may be suspended from the ceiling, and the curtain passed through, and supported quite as securely as by the straight arm. Indeed, the mode of suspending the curtain affords opportunity for the exercise of a variety of taste and ingenuity. The subject of bedsteads will be continued in another article.

THE FACTORY GIRL'S THRIFT.

A TALE FOR THE UNMARRIED.

CHAPTER II.

Jane Burton was married about the same time as Maria Day. Unhappily, her husband had not principle and energy, like James Dawson, to make the best of circumstances, and exert and deny himself for the support of those naturally dependent on him. He was dissipated as well as imprudent. The first act of his married life was to get possession of his wife's youthful savings, and to squander the whole on his own vicious indulgences; and, in subsequent years, many were the privations, and hardships, and struggles, endured by that wife, who, ill or well, had no dependence for support except on her own earnings; a large portion of which was often abstracted for the maintenance or the vices of her unworthy husband.

Two girls of Miss Woods' class, fully and even literally carried out the prudent resolve which, together with their less firm and persevering companions, they had taken up when early thrift had formed the topic of conversation round the work-table of their friend and teacher.

It might be ten or twelve years after that conversation, that the Miss Woods of by-gone days (now Mrs. Reynolds), accompanied by a friend, called on several of her old scholars. The first house they visited was a mean tenement, and scantily furnished, yet distinguished by evident marks of a love of cleanliness, order, and comfort in its inhabitants. Mere trifles serve to indicate such a disposition. In all the row there was scarcely another dwelling without a heap of rubbish in front, or of which the window-glass was bright, or which was furnished with a wisp of straw by way of door-mat, or in which the hearth was swept, and the chairs and table placed straight, and the plates, though only two or three, were arranged clean on the shelf. A moment's glance conveyed the impression that the people who occupied that dwelling were poor but decent. There was a mother with a babe in her lap, yet busily plying the needle. A girl of eight or nine years of age was also sewing. This child appeared to be in delicate health, and her walking was feeble and limping. Three other children, robust and hearty, were playing about. The clothing of all the family was scanty, yet clean and well-mended. The age of the mother was apparently towards thirty. Her countenance was marked by thoughtfulness and kindness. She seemed to be one who would try to make those around her happy. There were traces of anxiety that seemed nearly to have displaced an expression of native playfulness, which, however, now and then transiently revived. A sunshiny gleam hailed the entrance of Mrs. Reynolds and her friend. Very gratifying was it to find that the instructions of bygone days were gratefully and practically remembered.—'Indeed, ma'am,' said Maria Dawson, 'there is not a day but I am reminded of your great kindness and valuable lessons. My husband and I often say that to you our family is mainly indebted for the comfort which, amidst all our straits, we have enjoyed. But for you, I should have had no notion of turning my hand to anything beside factory work. The little we have would not have been made the best of. My poor husband would have been discouraged, and the children neglected; and before now we might all have gone to ruin. Oh, ma'am, you have been a true friend to me and mine.'

'I am very glad if any efforts of mine have been useful to you or any of the young people. Have you quite given up factory work?'

'As to that, ma'am, we can't say what may be. I have not been to it since my poor little Ellen was a baby. I left it, at the doctor's word, to save her life—and so, by God's blessing, it did. But, poor thing, you see she is not hearty like the rest. She was almost three years old before she walked, and there is still a weakness in her feet, that I fear she will never outgrow. The doctor hopes she will; but he says we must be very careful not to try her strength too much, and we must get her in the open air every day. It would not do, poor thing, to leave her to shift for herself, much less to mind the other children, who are so much stronger: they would quite wear her out. And my husband says, work how he can, and stint how he may, the children must be taken care of; and that it is better for me to make the best of things at home, and earn a trifle as I can without neglecting the children, than to get regular employment away from home.'

'I think you act wisely, all things considered; and I hope you do manage to get a living.'

'Oh! yes, ma'am. Nothing to complain of now my husband is in full work. We were hard set, to be sure, when work was slack, a time ago; and then, too, other people were badly off as well as we, and needlework did not come in much; but now work is brisk again in the mills, my husband is in full employ, and I often make a few shillings by working for the neighbours (thanks to you, ma'am, who taught me to handle my needle and scissors), and my eldest girl helps a little that way. So, as I may say, we are looking up a little now, and hoping to get into a better house than this, and a little more to put in it. But we cannot expect ever to have such a house as we might have had if we had been wise enough to wait and work and save as long as the copy told us.'

'What copy was that, Maria?'

'Oh, ma'am! don't you remember? I am sure I shall never forget it.—"Before you marry, make sure of a home wherein to tarry."—You know those that did mind it, and good homes they have got, and well-furnished too. But far be it from me to envy them. My lot has proved far better than I deserved, and better than that of several others. Some who wrote that copy with me, have got a home, sure enough; but it is the parish workhouse. And there is poor Jane Stone (Jane Burton that was)—this place, poor as it is, is a palace to hers—and there she is, poor thing, with her sixth child dying,—not one left to comfort her. They have all been cast away, as one may say, by taking them away from a mother's care, that she might toil on to keep herself and her good-for-nothing husband. Perhaps you will look in upon her, poor thing, and speak a kind word. It will do her good to see you, and Stone is sure not to be in the way, now there is nothing to be got.'

Mrs. Reynolds and her companion accordingly called on the poor disconsolate young woman. Hers was a wretched place indeed—a sort of cellar or cave. In one corner a heap of shavings, and a dirty rug, which evidently served as a bed. Two broken chairs—a tea-kettle, without a lid—a saucepan, without a handle—a broken-spouted tea-pot—a pewter mug (most likely belonging to the public-house)—and a broken platter or two—formed the furniture of this desolate hovel. On one of the creaking chairs sat the mother, rocking over her dying babe, in an agony of grief. Wearied with watching, and faint from exhaustion—for having lost a day or two from work, in attendance on her child, the source of supply was dried up; and she had, in fact, no food but a biscuit, which little Ellen Dawson had brought in to see whether the baby could eat it. The baby was past any attempt to feed; but the little gift served to appease the gnaw-ings of hunger in the poor mother, which even grief could not altogether divert.—'Oh, ma'am!' she exclaimed, with sobs, as Mrs. Reynolds put into her hand the means of procuring a present supply; 'if I had but minded your advice, I never should have come to this. You said, if girls would take time to save, they would take time to think, and would not throw themselves away. But I did it without a thought, and I suffer for it, and shall all my days.' A kind word or two were dropped, encouraging her not to give up all for lost, but still to hope and strive; to pray for strength to bear her sorrows, and for wisdom and grace to improve them; and, dark and dreary as her present circumstances were, to believe that it was possible for her to see brighter and better days in the land of the living.'

Lamenting the almost utter impossibility of devising any means permanently to relieve the wife of a really bad husband, Mrs. Reynolds conducted her friend to a dwelling of a very different description. 'Now,' said she, as they entered an open and rather modern street, 'you shall see the happy results of youthful prudence and forethought.'

Passing through a small fore-court, gay and fragrant with roses, sweet-peas, mignionette, and carnations, they entered a neat substantial dwelling, containing two rooms on the ground floor, two on the first floor, and two attics. At the back, a wash-house, and a small garden, in high cultivation and productiveness: a neater, more inviting home could scarcely be imagined. The whole of the house was neatly and sufficiently furnished—the better rooms containing articles, not only substantial, but of superior quality and workmanship. There was a good carpet, an eight-day clock, a book-case, mahogany chairs and tables, a remarkably elegant cot, and work-box, with sundry other articles indicative of sufficiency, comfort, and good taste. In the sitting-room was a healthy-looking, well-dressed, young woman; her age, in reality, was somewhat above those of the two mothers previously visited; but her plump cheerful countenance retained so much of youthful bloom, that a casual observer would have deemed her at least seven or ten years younger than either of the others. She had a babe on each knee, and one of about two years old was playing on the floor. Those in arms were too greatly different in size and intelligence to suggest the idea of their being twins—one might be three months old, the other eight or nine. The elder of the two, it appeared, belonged to a next-door neighbour and old schoolfellow, after whom Mrs. Reynolds kindly enquired. These neighbours were the Harriet Stokes and Jane Harris of former days, now Mrs. Grey and Mrs. Bell.

'Your dwelling,' said Mrs. R., 'and that of your neighbour, are very different from those occupied by some of your old schoolfellows; I am as much rejoiced to see your comforts, as I have been grieved to witness their destitution.'

'Perhaps, ma'am, you are thinking of Maria Dawson. She and her husband have had to struggle hard, poor things; while the slackness of work lasted, they must have often wanted food: but I hope they are better off now, and that they will get on. They have both a good spirit, and are very persevering.'

'Yes, there is every reason to hope, that after all their struggles and efforts, they will attain to sufficiency and comfort. Some are much worse off than the Dawsons, and with far less prospect of bettering themselves: Jane Stone is one. Yet she is industrious and clever. Her earnings, and those of her husband, I should suppose, are not much less than yours and your husband's?'

'Not at all less, ma'am; but it matters little what is earned, if a man makes away with every thing upon himself. A wife cannot do every thing alone, and there is poor encouragement for her to strive to get a bit of furniture round her, and know that her husband will sell it for drink. Poor Jane has tried again and again, but I believe now she has given up attempting more than living from hand to mouth.'

'No wonder. Her lot is enough to dishearten any one; yet it is just what might have been expected from such a connexion. It is a pity she was blind to the young man's character—which was so obvious to every body else.'

'That is very true, ma'am; but she *was* blind, as young people often are; and, as my husband's father says, they don't even take time to rub their eyes. However, I am sure, we that are better off have nothing to be proud of, but reason to be thankful for good advice. If we had followed our own bent, we might have acted just as foolishly as others, and smarted as severely.'

'That is quite the right view to take: the proper tendency of all we enjoy is to humble, not to exalt us. But come, Mrs. Grey, do tell this friend how it is that you and Mrs. Bell, and your partners, have become possessed of so many comforts.'

'Well, ma'am, there is not much to tell. You know how and where it was that Lucy and I took the resolution—from a copy that you set us—"Before you marry, make sure of a home wherein to tarry." From that time we both saved as much as we could. We did not stint ourselves of what was needful; and Lucy, you know, ma'am, was kind to her grandmother—she gave the poor old woman a shilling a week as long as she lived.'

'And I believe, Harriet, you did at least as much for your crippled brother?'

'Yes, poor fellow! Of course I did what I could for him, but he did not want it long. Well, I only meant to say, that when we began to save for our future comfort, it made us look twice at the money that a thing cost, and if we could do without it, we did not lay out our money for mere finery and fancy. Lucy and I were always very friendly, and we used to set one another on to stick to it in the way of saving. We used to say to one another, If Squire Watson and his wife, when they had nothing but labour to look to, could save enough to buy a house or set up in business, why should not we? And if we earn and save, we have a right to expect the lads should do the same. So we fixed our minds that we would not marry till we had a comfortable house and furniture. I do not say we were never tempted to do otherwise: we both of us were. But then we had set our minds on the thing, and we did not like to draw back. So, with a little perseverance, we wearied out those that would have persuaded us to give up our purpose—and a good thing too. The engagements or fancies that were broken off would not have been for our happiness. But they were got rid of, and we were left free to accept the offers of those who were really worth having. Then, ma'am, when real attachments were formed, we quite explained our intentions to the young men, and they readily agreed to them. We mutually engaged to be faithful to each other, and to wait from marrying till we could get things respectable and comfortable about us. When all this was settled, we worked and saved with greater spirit than ever; and, I'll be bound for it, the lads did the same. From time to time, as opportunities offered, we bought a good piece of furniture cheap. Then they resolved the more that we should have houses worthy of putting these good things in. You may think it took some years to do what was done. We used often to get laughed at, and told we should never marry. But laughing does not break bones, nor hearts either. We knew what we were about, and understood one another; and the wedding-day came all in good time; and then we entered on these good substantial freehold cottages, comfortably furnished. I don't say we had all the furniture at first that we have now. Having room to spare, we each took in a steady man to lodge, and this has enabled us to add what more was needed; and we have still kept putting a little money in the savings' bank, that we might have something to look to in case of illness or slackness of work. Here we are, I am thankful to say it, as happy as the day is long; and now that our family is coming on, we can look on our children with pleasure and hope; we are not afraid, with the blessing of God, but that we should be able to provide for them. We wives have not given up factory work—there is a good penny to be made by it; but we resolved, any how, that the children should not be neglected, nor the husband's home made uncomfortable, for the sake of gain, so one of us is always at home while the other is out at work. Thus, the children and houses are both taken care of, and all is ready and comfortable when the men come home for their meals. Many's the time, ma'am, that we have been thankful that ever you set that copy before us; and I only wish that all young people would think and act upon it, and that they might live to enjoy as much happiness as falls to the lot of us who inhabit The Endeavour Cottages.'

YORKSHIRE OAT CAKES, OR "AVER BREAD."

BY MRS. COPLEY.

The following particulars have been obtained from one Yorkshire native, and submitted to, and confirmed by another accustomed from infancy to observe the process and partake of the result. The operators in this instance were renowned throughout the neighbourhood for their skill and success. It was commonly said, 'Noan in all Silsbrig loin cad mak aver breid like old John and Betty Walker, unless it war Mally Smith.' The reader is here presented with the combined skill of all these redoubtable worthies.

The machinery or utensils required are:

1. A strong flat piece of board that will not warp; size, eighteen or twenty inches square. This is marked in grooves like a draught-board, but the lines run in a gently slanting direction, so dividing the board into long diamond squares. These grooves are made by tracing with a triangular gouge, scarcely one-eighth of an inch deep. This board is called the "bach-bread," or "bach-board."

2. A ladle, with which to measure the batter. Its size is regulated by the intended size and thickness of the bread. Very thin cakes are generally preferred, and the size should not exceed what will easily turn.

3. Two spitals. These are broad, flat, wooden shovels, with short handles, and sharp edges, sometimes tipped with steel to preserve from burning.

4. The bake-stone. A very smooth flat stone, fixed over a furnace in the manner of an ironing stove. Indeed the use of an iron plate, instead of stone, is now pretty generally adopted, though most old hands retain their preference for the stone on account of its longer retaining an equal heat. The article, whether with a stone or iron surface, is fitted to the framework, bars, and door of a furnace, the same as those of an ironing-stove. It is in frequent use for baking not only oatcakes, but muffins, crumpets, and pieclets.

Ingredients.—*Oatmeal*, which should be very dry. If dried in a kiln or oven* before grinding, so much the better.

Water, quite cold in summer; in very cold weather the chill may be taken off.

Leaven. To make a beginning, a small quantity must be prepared as follows:—Mix a little oatmeal into a stiff paste—two table spoonfuls of dry meal will be amply sufficient for a gallon—leave it in a warm place, free from dust, until it becomes sour, when it is converted into leaven. With this the first batch of dough is to be prepared. Afterwards the dough-pan is never washed, but the batter that adheres to it becomes leaven, and suffices for the next batch. The pan must be kept in a dry place and free from dust, and if it be deemed fitting occasionally to wash the pan, fresh leaven will be required. Yeast is not approved for the purpose, nor any of the chemical preparations more recently adopted for bread.

Method of preparing.—Twelve hours, or thereabouts, is a proper time to allow from making the dough or batter to baking it; it is therefore generally convenient to take it in hand over-night.

If fresh leaven, incorporate it well with the oatmeal, and mix with a sufficient quantity of water to bring to a stiff batter, considerably stiffer than would be suitable for pancakes, yet not nearly so stiff as to be fit for rolling, like pie-crust. In fact it should just admit of pouring or dipping with the ladle.

When the dough is ready, and the bake-stone heated, thoroughly dust over the bach-board and one spital with dry oatmeal. Pour a ladleful of the batter on the centre of the board, which then take in the two hands and briskly turn it round and round, working from left to right, till the mass of dough is spread out flat, thin, and perfectly round, like a plate. The slanting grooves act as lines of resistance, which, in the act of turning, force the cake to turn round in a contrary direction, while the dry meal prevents it from sticking to the board, and gives firmness to its surface. When the cake is properly moulded it is to be dexterously transferred from the bach-board to the dusted spital, by lifting or tossing, but never attempt to shovel it up. This first cake is to serve as a foundation for all the rest. Some people use a sheet of smooth white paper on which to slide the cakes from the bach-bread to the spital, but the best bakers prefer the method herein directed, and if the utensils have been well sprinkled with dry meal, enough will cling to the bottom of each cake to preserve it from sticking to the top of another. Having then measured and moulded a second cake on the bach-bread, lodge it on the original cake already on the spital. Then take the spital by the handle with the right hand, and turn it upside down on the bake-stone or plate. The under cake will now, of course, be uppermost. Take it off quickly, and return it to the spital to receive another. The cake on the stone will quickly rise up in blisters all over ; if the stone be of a proper heat these blisters will soon burst —one side of the cake is then sufficiently done; it is to be turned by passing under it the fine edge of the other spital, which turn round and so replace the cake with its surface reversed.

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* Every sort of grain, by this process, is greatly improved in richness of flavour, and preserved from injury for a very long time. This is the difference between the Scotch and English oatmeal. The way in which the business is managed on a small scale is this:—Place the grain on tins or shallow dishes, in a hot, not scorching oven, for five minutes, during which time turn it over with a spoon or knife, that all the grain may be exposed to surface heat. Spread it out on a clean board or table to cool. It is ready for grinding immediately.

The oven, or bake-stone, is usually large enough to hold two cakes at once. When turned the cake may be put on a cooler part of the stone to finish, leaving the hottest part bare for a new cake, which get on as quickly as possible. The first is now quite done, but as limp as wash leather. Take it off and place it on a rack, or some contrivance of a similar kind, that the air may draw all round to cool it quickly. Thus proceed till all are done, baking at last the cake first made. Much quickness and dexterity are required, first to make the cakes of a regular figure and thickness, next to keep them promptly shifted on the stone, that they neither slacken nor scorch—next that the stone should be left bare a moment, but that all may be done while the stone or plate retains a proper heat—and then to get all advantageously placed for rapid cooling.

The cakes are sometimes eaten new, being buttered the instant they are removed from the hot stone, and very nice they are, much superior to crumpets ; but this is a sort of luxury not generally allowed by frugal housewives. The usual plan is to reserve them for occasional use, and, if well baked, they will keep good for months, and even years. Where this is practised the kitchen or other dry room where a good fire is constantly kept, is fitted up with rods or cords to the ceiling, in pairs about six inches apart ; on these the cakes are placed singly with the smooth side upwards. In a few days they become firm and crisp. The apparatus just described is called a "bread-flegg." In a lofty room it is perhaps more convenient and answers the purpose of rapid drying equally well, to place the cakes edgewise in a rack suspended from the ceiling.

Much of the sweetness and excellence of the cakes depends on their quickly drying and hardening. When this is thoroughly effected, they may be kept in a box in any dry place.

It is observed also that if the leaven be too freely used, or be too stale, it will give a sour taste to the cakes ; it should therefore be used with caution. This remark especially applies to the quantity of leaven employed in a fresh making. The quantity that hangs about the pan from one making to another will not overdo. If the cakes made on the remnants of a former making should be otherwise than sweet and mild, it is an indication that the pan requires to be well scalded and dried, and the whole process renewed.

These directions are amply sufficient for any person who has a mind to begin making oat cakes, and use will soon make perfect, in skill to apportion the ingredients and dexterity to carry on the process.

This kind of bread is considered nourishing and wholesome ; it is found to correct acidity and flatulency of the stomach, and to assist the digestive powers generally.

THE FOES WHO ONCE WERE FRIENDS.

When rival nations, great in arms,
Great in power, in glory great,
Fill the world with war's alarms
And breathe a temporary hate,
The hostile storms but rage awhile
And the tried contest ends;
But ah! how hard to reconcile
The foes who once were friends!

Each hasty word, each look unkind,
Each distant hint that seems to mean
A something lurking in the mind
Which hardly bears to lurk unseen;
Each shadow of a shade offends
The embittered foes who once were friends.

That Power alone who formed the soul
And bade the springs of passion play,
Can all these jarring chords control,
And make them yield to concord's sway.
'Tis He alone, whose breath of love
Did o'er the world of waters move,
Whose touch the mountains bends;
Whose word from darkness called forth light;
'Tis He alone can reunite
The foes who once were friends.

ONLY BREAD!

A STORY FOR CHILDREN.—FROM THE ITALIAN.

One morning early, Carlino, accompanied by a maid-servant, was on his way to school. This little boy was stout and ruddy, and his clothing was neat and comfortable; but he walked along with a discontented look, holding down his head, while big tears rolled slowly down his cheeks. When he had got about half-way he met his uncle. 'Heyday! what is the matter now?' enquired the uncle. 'Wherefore art thou crying?' Carlino made no answer; so he turned to the servant—'Lisa, tell me what has happened to him.'

'Sir,' she replied, 'he is crying because he is sent to school to-day, with only bread for his luncheon.'

'I am sorry, Carlino, that thou shouldst have only bread to take with thee; but it would be still worse if this little mortification were imposed on thee on account of ill conduct. I hope not.'

Carlino still remained silent; so Lisa went on saying, 'To tell you how it was, Sir, little master, after having eat a hearty breakfast, wanted to get also the sweetmeats intended for his luncheon, before leaving home; so his lady-mother said he should not have any to-day.'

'Since this is the case, my nephew, thy mama did what was quite right. Where didst thou ever learn to be a glutton? Now thou oughtest to have patience, and say, "The fault is my own, I will not do so any more." Good-bye, I hope to see thee in better humour the next time we meet.'

But Carlino, instead of becoming more reconciled to his disappointment, began to sob aloud, hoping perhaps thereby to excite his uncle's pity. Just at that moment there passed close to his side a ragged-looking little boy, in his shirt sleeves, and with his coloured apron twisted like a girdle round his waist, and carrying under his arm a piece of coarse brown bread. He was about two years older than Carlino, and was going along with so active a step and so joyous a countenance that it did one good to look at him. The uncle stopped him on his way, saying, in a good-humoured tone, 'Wilt thou be so kind as to tell me whither thou art going so fast?'

'Willingly, sir; I am on my way to the Giglio, where I labour every day.'

'And from whence dost thou come?'

'From Maiano.'

'From Maiano, two miles outside the gates of the city?'

'Yes, sir.'

'And at what hour is thy day's work ended?'

'At seven o'clock.'

'Thou hast a piece of bread under thy arm, I perceive!'

'Yes, sir, it is for my breakfast and dinner.'

'What, without anything else!'

'Yes, sir; and very good it is, too.'

'But couldst thou not treat thyself to something a little more savoury, out of thine earnings?'

'Oh, sir, I keep all my earnings for my mother; she wants them badly enough.'

'And thy father?'

'Ah, my poor mother is a widow,' he answered with a sigh.

The uncle, placing his hand kindly upon

the little fellow's shoulder, 'So thou dost help her? That is all right; it is the duty of a good son to do so. But in the evening, on thy return home, she has, I dare say, a comfortable supper ready for thee.'

'Oh yes, sir; a bowl of broth, or a plate of beans; and on holidays some cheese into the bargain.'

'Well done, my little fellow!' and, laying his hand upon his shoulder in a friendly manner, he said, 'I will no longer keep thee talking now, but hope to see thee another time, farewell.' The boy, pulling off his cap, set off running, as if to make up for lost time.

The uncle, turning round to Carlino, perceived that he was no longer crying; and that, so far from still looking displeased, about the dry bread, he seemed deeply intent on the conversation he had just overheard.

'I must wish thee good morning now,' said his uncle gaily, 'for I have a world of business on my hands.' So, patting his nephew on the shoulder in the same friendly way that he had done to the labouring child, he bid him adieu.

Carlino was very attentive this day at school, and when the hour of luncheon had arrived, he seated himself down to eat it with a good appetite, although it consisted only of bread. His master observing this, offered him some fruit, and so did some of his schoolfellows, also; but, thanking them for their kindness, he declined accepting any.

On his way home from school, he came across his uncle again. 'Oh! is it thou, Carlino? How does the world wag with thee now?'

'Well, very well, dear uncle;' answered the child, with a bright joyous countenance. 'And do you know, uncle, since this morning, I have thought so often of that little boy!—I would—if I could, that is to say—but then, nobody must know it besides you'—

'Tell me, like a good fellow, what is it you want to do; and if I can be of any use to you with your parents, in getting their permission, I will do my best.'

'Well then, this is what I want, said he, drawing quite close to his uncle, 'If I might be allowed for some time to come to eat only bread at my luncheon, and not to take any fruit or sweetmeats at my dinner either, and that papa and mama would give me the money I had saved, and that I might send it to the mother of that little boy,—for I am afraid she must be very poor,—then I would be so happy!'

'A very good thought it is Carlino; and I have no doubt that your parents will approve of the plan.'

Carlino on hearing his uncle speak thus, thanked him warmly, and ran on full of glee towards his home.

His good uncle managed the business for him just as he had promised to do.

For some little while Carlino ate only bread at luncheon, and whenever the fruits and sweetmeats looked particularly tempting at his parents' table, he thought of the poor boy and his mother, and began his dry morsel with renewed appetite. Thus he persevered in his abstinence, and before very long, he had the pleasure to receive ten lire as the fruit of his self-denial. He brought this little sum to his uncle, and placed it in his hands, while his eyes danced with pleasure.

'And now, Carlino, I will add as much more to it; and then we can take it ourselves to the widow. What say you to that?' asked the uncle.

'Oh, it will be so pleasant; and when shall we go, uncle?'

'Now, if you please.'

This was joyful news to Carlino, and they were soon on their way to Maiano, where they found the poor widow in deep distress, because she had failed in selling her knitting, whereby she had hoped to gain sufficient to pay the rent of her miserable dwelling; and being unable to discharge this debt, her landlord had threatened to turn her out of doors.

On receiving the twenty lire, she seemed to regard this sum as a mine of wealth, and was full of gratitude to those who had thus unexpectedly relieved her misery. The uncle left also a little present for her good son Antonio, and then he returned home with Carlino, who, from that day forth, never gave way to any gluttonous inclination; but when disposed to do so, thought of Antonio and his mother, and of their poor little cottage at Maiano.

THE YOUNG GARDENER.

BY MARTIN DOYLE.

EMPLOYMENTS—HORTICULTURAL SHOW—THE PRUNING KNIFE RECOVERED—THE THIEF—CONCLUSION.

Spring, that pleasant season in which plants rise up and grow, passed away with its pretty flowers ; snowdrops, crocuses, polyanthuses ; hepaticas, had bloomed and withered ; tulips, gaudy and short-lived, pinks and carnations, and a multitude of early summer flowers had faded,—and the full summer season of still richer bloom, and more luxuriant vegetation,

" In all the liveries decked of summer's pride,"

had succeeded and gone. Richard Giles had seen garden practice which was quite new to him, and he was already turning his thoughts seriously to the study of the nature of plants—the treatment, the soils, and the food suited to the different sorts of plants with which he had become acquainted. In Mr. Thorpe's greenhouse and conservatory he always learnt something interesting or instructive. He had opportunities of observing there, especially, how warmth and moisture cause cuttings to strike root in earth, and what degrees of heat by day and night agree best with tender plants, and how their flowering may be hastened or kept back, or preserved. His own hands sometimes repotted a plant, and budding and grafting became easy to him. He would gaze upon unfolding petals, and watch the progress of their development with delight; and though his mind condescended to notice and attend to the business of the kitchen garden, it had risen above radishes—it had soared to cucumbers, and even melons. Soon after Mr. Primrose had prepared in spring a melon bed on a large scale, Richard made a small one at home for cucumbers, with fine earth and a load of horse-litter, which Mr. Thorpe himself sent to him for the purpose ; and Mr. Primrose gave him cucumber plants which he had raised from seed. He began to calculate, too, how much money he might make by them in the next year at an early season, for he had read in a gardening book about the great profit made by gardeners, of cucumbers in March, when they may be worth a guinea a dozen, though in August or September, when they are abundant, they may be bought for a penny or twopence a dozen ; and he read also in the Bible how the children of Israel eat them more than 2000 years ago in the wilderness. He picked up at an auction an old patched hotbed frame, which answered for *his* hotbed ; he also bought there some crazy hand-glasses, for protecting cauliflower plants when first planted out. He was more *important*, if possible, while his cucumbers were growing, than he had been during the progress of his radishes, giving air and shade, and sunshine and water as the cucumber plants required.

During the whole summer there were many mysterious consultations between Mr. Primrose and Richard. The cauliflowers, the potatos, the onions were often examined by the friendly gardener, and there were certain manures dissolved in water, and applied in gentle waterings, which the thirsty plants seemed to enjoy. Something uncommon was going on ; that was clear enough, though neither Mrs. Giles nor Jane seemed to know what it was. Indeed the little garden was a curiosity, it looked so gay with flowers, many of which had been raised in pots within the hotbed before the cucumber plants overspread it ; the balsams were particularly beautiful; these—the most delicate of his plants—Richard had protected by one of Mawe's simple awnings, which he had put up in this manner :—he fixed at each corner of the bed in which the plants were potted, an upright post about four feet high, and on the inside of each post bored some auger holes, six inches distant from each other ; he then made four wooden pins, one for each post, and fitted for the holes. When the frames required to be raised, he put the pins into the posts at a convenient height, and rested the frame upon the pins ; when the frame wanted raising again, he fixed the pins a hole higher, and so on, according as the plants under the awning required head-room.

Not a bare spot was to be seen in any part of the garden ; and no one who has not tried to make the most of a garden, can tell how much it may be brought to yield. Cabbages were put down as fast as early potatos were dug out, and so with every crop; the ground was never left idle, as if it was tired and needed rest. The pig, the poultry, ashes, composts, and a little guano, supplied a sufficiency of manure.

The easy quiet life which the small family under Mrs. Giles's roof enjoyed, admitted of few changes beyond those which the seasons brought; there were no great events. One circumstance indeed, had occurred which fretted Richard for a few days,—he lost his pruning knife, at the time too when the summer pruning would have rendered it useful to him; every place was searched where there was a chance of its being found; one of his waistcoat pockets was discovered to have a very small hole in it. 'Oh! Richard, Richard,' said Mrs. Giles, 'why did you not give me this hole to mend? see the consequence, your nice knife is gone,—'a stitch in time,'—let this be a warning to you.' 'But grandmother,' said Richard, 'just measure the hole; a pea could hardly pass through it, and the knife was more than an inch and a half wide.' But Mrs. Giles said that for all that the knife might have worked itself through it. Jane, with more probability of being right, thought that the knife had been jerked out of the pocket. The hole, however, was immediately mended, as if that could have repaired the loss.

> "Summer was departing fast,
> Autumn, nodding o'er the yellow plain,
> Came jovial on."

Many plants had come and gone; melons had ripened, and even Richard's cucumbers were come to maturity. Grapes and choice apples "with that ripe red the autumnal sun bestows," were now among the gifts of Providence.

It was the last night of August, the sun had set, Richard staid out in the garden till the latest hour of evening, and then, after brushing his jacket and polishing his shoes, went to bed, but not to sleep. What kept him awake? Were fleas playing hop, skip and jump upon his body, or trying to pull the blanket from him? No; the room was kept too cleanly for that. Was he conning over a lesson? Was he trying to recollect or pronounce any botanical words? Was he getting a fever? Was thunder rolling over his head? Was he afraid of some disgrace at school? No, no, no. What then made him so fidgetty until day broke?

There was to be on that day a horticultural show at a town three miles distant, and Richard was to go there with Mr. Primrose, who had some very fine flowers, grapes, melons, and celery to exhibit for Mr. Thorpe; the various specimens were to be presented at ten o'clock, so the wakeful boy thought when the clock struck four, that it was full time to call Mr. Primrose, who was sleeping as soundly as if there were no prizes to be won or lost on that day. Both went off to the park to pack the things designed for the day's exhibition. These were carefully placed in a covered market cart. Mr. Primrose and Richard then returned to breakfast, and dressed themselves; and they both looked so neat and clean at starting, that they had no cause to feel ashamed of coming into the presence of the fairest ladies.

The show day was beautiful. The exhibition was held in the pretty lawn of a gentleman, who kindly opened it to the public for the purpose, and tents were fixed there for the varied productions presented. In a long tent was a table covered with beautiful specimens of heaths, fuchsias, asters, balsams, cockscombs, verbenas, roses, and pansies. Over the middle part of the table, a large balloon and car of dahlias and other flowers was suspended, and at the upper end of the room was the royal crown of England, with the letters V. R. in 'asters' and 'everlasting.' In another tent there were pines, melons, grapes, peaches, nectarines, plums, apples, pears, mulberries, and filberts. In a third celery, white and red, carrots, parsnips, onions, kidney-beans, peas, cabbages, lettuces, and potatos, of various sorts. There was a fourth tent for the pears, apples, common flowers, and vegetables of humble cottagers. On a raised platform was placed a fine military band, which played beautiful airs suited to the occasion, such as "The last Rose of Summer," "The Garland of Love," and—

> "Merrily merrily let us sing now,
> Under the blossoms that hang on the bough,"

while ladies and gentlemen walked up and down, and dear little girls and dear little boys, like Kate and Walter G——, tripped about as gaily as if there were to be nothing but sunshine, and nosegays and music, all the year round, and seemed to be in love with every body, as every body was with them.

It was not until one o'clock that the tents were thrown open, for the judges had been examining the flowers and fruits, and vegetables, and labelling the best until that hour. Then there was a rush inwards, and a little boy might have been seen, with a very anxious face, pressing into a tent, and then heard to cry out, "That's mine! that's mine!" as he saw on a slip of paper fixed to a cucumber, the name "*Richard Giles—Second prize, a silver salt-spoon.*" Richard jumped high from the ground, and in coming to the earth trod upon the foot of a gentleman, who looked rather cross at him. But Richard was in such glee, that he did not wait, as he ought to have done, to beg pardon for his awkwardness, but squeezed his little body on through the crowd, until he found a plate with pink kidney potatos, which he knew to be his at a glance. Another slip of paper—First prize—a silver tea-spoon! He had onions—no prize. Cauliflowers —Third prize—a silver saltspoon! Off he ran to tell the good news to Mr. Primrose, whom he found in another tent, where he had been adjudged prizes for melons and celery. In the principal flower tent, Mr. P. also obtained prizes, one of them being a pair of silver sugar-tongs.

Thus did our two gardeners distinguish themselves on that day. Richard was complimented by many persons, and envied, perhaps, by some; and when he walked about on the smooth turf, he held his head so erect, and moved to the music with such a light, jaunty, hop-along sort of step, with his hands in the side pockets of his jacket—a habit that he had acquired from imitating Mr. Primrose—that people might have imagined that the band had played "See the conquering hero comes," expressly in honour of him, though they, in fact, were thinking of the Duke of Wellington, if they were thinking of any hero. How very grateful Richard ought to have been to Mr. Primrose for instructing him so well! and so he was, and Mrs. Giles was very grateful too.

The secret of Richard's wakefulness on the night before the show is now told. We did not like to say anything of what he had been so busy about until we knew the issue of it. Perhaps he may write a book to tell us how he brought his vegetables to such perfection; but unless he may do so, or give us leave to do so, we shall not betray his little mysteries.

So well pleased was Mrs. Giles on the occasion—the spoons were silver gilt—that she bought for Richard a hat, which was more dignified for him than a cap.

Richard had often thought about the fate of his knife. He could not believe that a solid thing, which was not elastic, could squeeze itself through a hole six times narrower than itself; he therefore had often asked himself the question, 'How did I lose the knife?' The wonder was explained in this manner:—Mr. Fawcett, the surgeon of the neighbourhood, was giving Richard some help one day in a Latin lesson, when a woman came to him breathless, intreating that he would hasten to John Tibbs, who had cut off one of his hands. Mr. Fawcett put his instruments in his pockets, and proceeded without delay to the sufferer. Richard went with him, because Tibbs was his class-fellow. The lad was in a swoon; the first joint of one of his little fingers was so nearly cut through, that the surgeon thought it best to cut it off entirely. The pain of the operation, and a splash of cold water on his face, brought him to consciousness. His first look was to his finger—his second to Richard—his third was glanced at a knife which he had flung from him in pain and terror, when he had cut his finger instead of a switch which he had intended to sever. In spite of his sickness, the thief, for such he was, blushed. Richard, though he pitied the culprit who by a just judgment from Him whose eye is ever upon us, was now detected, could not resist the impulse which tempted him to cross the floor, and take up the open knife, which had been thrown with such force on a brick floor, that the point of the blade snapped off—

"He shook the fragment of the blade,
And shouted, Victory!",

not in these exact words, nor in the tone of the warrior, but he whispered to himself, 'I have got it again.' Yet so generous was he, that when he looked at the hang-dog face of shame and misery which the wretched Tibbs exhibited from the double tortures of mind and body, he determined not to speak of the matter out of his own family. The maimed boy recovered soon from the wound, but never afterwards could look at any of his companions boldly in the face; and of course he will carry to the grave, however he may truly repent of his dishonesty and prosper in the world, the mark of the punishment which God was pleased he should suffer.

Every thing seemed to point out that Richard Giles should become a gardener by profession. He had a decided turn, nay, a passion for the garden, and the constant society of Mr. Primrose had daily strengthened that turn of his mind. The end was, that at the age of fifteen, he became the apprentice of Mr. Primrose for five years, and a constant workman during that period in Mr. Thorpe's gardens, which, under Mr. Primrose's management, became the most noted in that part of the country. And Richard had the satisfaction of remaining during those years with his fond grandmother and cousin Jane, who, it is said, will be married to their worthy lodger and friend, Mr. Primrose.

KEEPING A PONY.

BY MARTIN DOYLE.

Many persons, besides those who keep a pony for drawing a little gig or phaeton, have need of one to draw a common cart, to execute the light drill work of a market garden, or for jobbing.

The great improvements in the construction of all wheel carriages, and of roads—but still more so, perhaps, the legal exemption from taxes, of horses not exceeding twelve hands in height—have led to the very extended increase, in England, of dwarf ponies. These little creatures, from the rate of speed frequently required from them, and the heavy loads imposed on them, are over-driven and over-weighted. Some of them, though but formed for active movements, and for drawing very light weights, are often loaded as if they were strong and full-sized horses. While I have been writing thus far, a diminutive pony has passed my window, drawing three men and two women, at a furious rate; and a short time before, two middle-sized dogs rushed along the same road, panting from the fatigue of drawing a large man and a woman in a cart. Both, especially the latter, of these instances, are unquestionably acts of wilful oppression and cruelty. Yet this case may plead the implied sanction of an act of parliament—the friends of humanity in the House of Commons having there failed in their efforts to save the dog from such cruelty, except within a prescribed distance of the streets of the metropolis.

The other abuse is the result of a well-intended act of parliament, which has exempted from tax the owner of a small pony, when it was not anticipated that motives of parsimony, or too rigid economy, would lead to the substitution of the small pony for a horse in many severe labours, utterly disproportioned to its powers.

The person in search of a pony to draw a moderate load, and for slow work, may find some of the following remarks useful to him:

First, as to the *form of a pony designed for labour and slow draught;*—The legs and pasterns should be short, the ribs and quarters round and full, the chest broad and open, and the couples short.

As the breadth of the body is not, like its height, taxable by the statute, the buyer should avail himself of the legal omission on this point, and take all the *latitude* allowed; if the limbs be strong in proportion, the breadth and weight of the body cannot be too great. If, on the contrary, the pony be wanted for activity and easy labour, its symmetrical proportions must be attended to, which are pretty nearly those, in miniature, of a handsome well-bred horse; but, in all cases, a compact well-limbed pony is the most serviceable sort,—a loosely made, long-legged, cat-hammed one is, for any purpose, a perfect abomination.

Handling and Training.—The pony should be tenderly handled from the earliest age; familiarized to man, so that it will not contract the dangerous habits of biting and kicking at him, which are the consequences of bad education, and the natural instinctive efforts of self-defence against oppression.

But though the pony should be handled from an early age, it should not be worked with regularity or severely before its fourth year, though it may do light work a year sooner; and it should have a summer's run at grass (to do it justice) in the third year, and the fourth also. Its muscular strength ought to be established before it is put to hard labour. Horses of any sort, prematurely *worked* (and they are not of full strength until the fifth year) become worn out before their time.

The work of a pony should be limited at first to carrying a light back-load, or drawing a lightly loaded cart; and the best way of training the pony to bear the resistance of weight is to yoke it alongside of a trained one, and teach it to pull by degrees, slackening the traces when it feels the pull at the collar unpleasant, until it becomes accustomed to it.

After a little practice in this way, it will very soon bear the shafts of the cart, and disregard the rattling of the wheels, and learn to draw in single harness. Patience and gentleness, on the part of the trainer, are indispensable to the docility of the young pony. A passionate man, who forces the collar over its head, or a snaffle or bit into its mouth, hurting its teeth and jaws, or who beats it on the head, or kicks it on the ribs when it is *afraid* to move forwards, or who flogs the tender and timid animal if it make a false step, when its inexperienced limbs cannot move with ease and security on a rough road, ought to be dismissed without needless ceremony. The future intractability of the animal may be the consequence of the ignorance, stupidity, or ill temper of its first trainer, who, by his folly and stupidity, teaches it to resist his authority, (to which, under proper treatment, it would easily have been brought to submit) unless the poor thing is so heart-broken and stupefied by tyrannical abuse, as to lose its natural sagacity.

The docility of a horse, under judicious management, is wonderful; no animal, except the dog, is so capable of being rendered the companion of man. No other creature can be brought, by gentleness and patience, to face what it naturally fears extremely. For instance, the cavalry and artillery horses stand fire unflinchingly, and hear the thunders of the cannon without apparent dismay. So do the horses and ponies of the circus exhibit astonishing feats, which are the results of training.

Any horse, gently handled in its early years —patted playfully at proper times—fed from the hand with a bit of carrot, or with oats—may be taught to follow its master, or remain steadily by his side, though at liberty all the while to escape from him. In short, the horse, like the dog, may be taught to obey the voice and gesture of its master.

I had a pony a few years ago which, even in its most frolicksome moods, when loose in the stable-yard or the paddock, would run up to the groom and follow him any where.

But, frequently, every thing is done to crush the spirit of the horse or pony. If it exhibit nervous alarm at some new object, it is flogged or spurred, and—as the natural consequence—when it next sees the same object, it feels increased terror, because it has not only to contend with the instinctive apprehension which the object of alarm itself occasions, but also with the associated fear of whip or spur.

The methods of treatment which ignorant and intemperate men pursue, to conquer the nervous startings of a horse, are precisely those which are most likely to confirm them. Gentleness, then, with a young pony under training, and the use of language (which it soon sufficiently understands), instead of harshness of manner, and the crack of a whip, should be invariably exercised. The sounds of gentleness and caressing kindness are quite intelligible to all sagacious domestic animals, and the pony is no exception to this fact. The voice of a gentle female, when she pats her pony with kindness, is always agreeable to it, because it associates tenderness and security from any manifestation of tyranny, or a desire to torment, with her voice.

Stable Management.—If there be a hay-rack in the stable, and it can be conveniently removed, get rid of it, and retain the manger; with some necessary re-arrangement of it, a box-manger is sufficient for all feeding purposes. As a rack is so much above the horse's head, the poor animal is obliged to strain its neck in order to reach a mouthful of hay. In its natural state at pasture, the horse pokes its head to the ground; but standing at a rack, the neck is elevated in an unnatural position.

Every person who keeps horses knows that a great deal of hay is frequently left in the rack to save the trouble of renewing the allowance, and in livery stables hay is purposely packed so tightly in the rack, in order that horses may not pull it out without difficulty. The foul air of the stable, too, added to the breathing of horses on it, renders the hay so unpalatable to them, that less of it is consumed (as livery keepers well know), than would be the case if it were supplied fresh and fresh, and shaken loosely into the rack.

The sufficiency of the box-manger alone will more fully appear when I shall have detailed the manner of feeding a pony kept for the purposes stated in the beginning.

We shall suppose that the pony is fed, in winter, on hay, straw, pollard, Swedish turnips, bruised furze, potatoes, or carrots. As the hay and straw ought to be cut into chaff, and mixed with the allowance of oats, the rack could not be used for holding this food. And in summer the box is more convenient for holding clover, vetches, or other green food. It should be often washed, especially after holding boiled roots, or mashes of any kind; but cleanliness, in this instance, costs nothing. Away with the rack, then, and substitute for it a box-manger. The stable, with a view to the economy of manure, is the fit place for the pony to rest in by day and night. If, however, a small loose yard can be penned off outside the stable-door, the health of the pony, and the free action of its limbs, will be improved, by having the liberty of moving about in it, and this, too, without loss of manure. This mode of management is very practicable in many instances.

It is pleasant to see a pony gambolling about in a pasture-field during the summer, and I am aware that in numerous cases it is advantageous to turn it out to grass. The animal evidently enjoys its freedom, as it testifies by kicking up its heels, like a school-boy when let loose from the school-room. If there be a suitable pasture-field for the pony, I have only to remark, that it should not be turned on it until the growth of grasses is well advanced, for if these be nipped too early, the plants are injured, and retarded in their growth; and any horse being obliged to fall back upon dry food, feels a distaste to it, which would not be the case if it had not cropped the green blade. It is, therefore, a great mistake to turn out a horse when there is an insufficiency of grass, as is a usual practice in regard to commons, on which animals are let loose at such an early period of the spring, that they stop the progress of vegetation. If the jobber have the privilege of grazing a pony on a common, he will act judiciously in not availing himself of it in the early spring, or in winter: the sour weak food which commons in general yield, render any kind of horse unfit for work.

There is, however, an advantage which the poor man may sometimes derive from the commons in winter for his pony. He may shear the young shoots of furze growing there; and these, when pounded in a trough, become an excellent substitute for hay or chaff—*if* oats be given also—until the blossoming season, when furze becomes unfit food.

Besides the loss of manure sustained by the grazing of a pony, there is another objection to its being turned out on grass, namely, the danger of its being injured by a kick from some vicious horse, or the thrust of a cow's horn. Many horses limp home with broken limbs from a pasture field. The stable then, all circumstances considered, is the best place for any sort of horse.

We have now to consider a matter of very practical moment, viz. *The quantity and cost* (at the present rates) *of food necessary for a pony twelve hands high.*

Supposing it to be fed entirely on hay and oats—I think that two-thirds of the Government allowance for cavalry horses-is sufficient for a pony of the above size. That allowance is, I believe, 12 lbs. of hay, 12 lbs. of oats, and 6 lbs. of straw, for twenty-four hours. The cavalry horses generally are in excellent condition on this allowance, and I may infer, that 8 lbs. of oats and 8 lbs. of hay are sufficient for the stomach of a little pony. The regularity of feeding hours, and the frequency of wisping and brushing them, has no doubt a considerable influence on the condition of cavalry horses, but a pony may be at least as regularly and as well groomed, and in numerous cases as regularly fed.

Supposing the pony, then, to consume 8 lbs. of oats per day, at the rate of 18s. per quarter—which is about the current price—and 8 lbs. of hay per day, at £3. per ton, the amount would stand thus—

	£	s.	d.
Oats, 9 qrs. 1 bushel (of 40 lbs.) at 18s. per quarter	8	4	3
Hay, 26 cwts. at 3s. per cwt.	3	18	0
Add for shoeing	1	10	0
	£13	12	3

Straw, for litter, will generally be provided in exchange for the manure which it produces.

But a change of food is desirable, and in some instances, decidedly economical; for instance, during three winter months, furze shoots may occasionally be substituted for hay, and this would effect some saving.

Again, if straw (cut into chaff be given instead of hay, a reduction in the above estimate will be effected; but though good straw is better than bad hay, it is to be remembered that no straw is equal to good hay. If carrots, Swedish turnips, &c., be procurable at the prices at which they are now valued by farmers, and used partly instead of oats and hay, there may be another reduction obtained in the first estimate. If lucerne, vetches, clover, or even ordinary soiling, be purchased, (or grown by the owner of the pony) at the average rate of 1s. per pole, there will be a very considerable saving obtained during four months of the year. Calculating that a pole of such green food would be sufficient for the keep of the pony during six days, the cost would be 2d. a day, or about 17s. for one-third of the year—oats being unnecessary during that period. If, then, 17s. be entered for four months, instead of the sum estimated for hay and oats during that time, the actual cost of food might be reduced to £10., without taking into consideration the still farther reductions that may be effected by substituting furze and straw for hay.

GOLD.

Gold! Gold! Gold! Gold!
Bright and yellow, hard and cold;
Molten, graven, hammered, and roll'd,
Heavy to get, and light to hold;
Hoarded, bartered, bought, and sold,
Stolen, borrowed, squandered, doled;
Spurned by the young, but hugg'd by the old,
To the very verge of the church-yard mould;
Price of many a crime untold.
Gold! Gold! Gold! Gold!
Good or bad a thousand fold!
  How widely its agencies vary,—
To save—to ruin—to curse—to bless—
As even its minted coins express,
Now stamped with the image of good Queen
    Bess,
  And now of a bloody Mary!

HOOD.

Fireside Amusements.

One person is appointed president, and taking the book into his hand, reads aloud one of the questions, and then calling upon each of the party in succession to choose a number, reads the answer affixed to it in the book; of course not allowing any person meantime to peep over his shoulder, so as to form any idea of what the answer will be.

OF WHAT TEMPER OR DISPOSITION ARE YOU?

1 Sentimental
2 Heroic
3 Sincere
4 Extravagant
5 Perverse
6 Impetuous
7 Truthful
8 Revengeful
9 Jealous
10 Lively
11 Irritable
12 Pensive
13 Charitable
14 Passionate
15 Placid
16 Susceptible
17 Absent
18 Thoughtful
19 Engaging
20 Agreeable
21 Hopeful
22 Affectionate
23 Fiery
24 Compassionate
25 Cheerful
26 Perverse
27 Docile
28 Fretful
29 Generous
30 Bold
31 Sprightly
32 Enthusiastic
33 Amiable
34 Volatile
35 Persevering
36 Gay
37 Heedless
38 Pedantic
39 Changeable
40 Melancholy

WHAT IS MOST PLEASING IN YOU?

1 Your affability
2 „ unaffected manners
3 „ complaisance
4 „ fine hair
5 „ strong judgment
6 „ sensibility
7 „ skill in music
8 „ diffidence
9 „ good complexion
10 „ vivacity
11 „ simplicity of dress
12 „ liberality
13 „ beautiful hair
14 „ pleasing address
15 Your modesty
16 „ cheerful behaviour
17 „ tenderness
18 „ delicacy
19 „ cultivated mind
20 „ good temper
21 „ fine figure
22 „ pleasing address
23 „ generosity
24 „ wit
25 „ humility
26 „ exquisite voice
27 „ graceful manners
28 „ benevolence
29 Your politeness
30 „ warm heart
31 „ conversational powers
32 „ anxiety to please
33 „ hospitable disposition
34 „ extensive information
35 „ urbanity
36 „ freedom from affectation
37 „ handsome face
38 „ powerful intellect
39 „ mildness
40 „ patience

WHAT DO YOU WISH FOR MOST?

1 To attract notice
2 To remain unmarried
3 To be admired
4 A contented mind
5 To please
6 A tour on the continent
7 To meet with a feeling heart
8 A long life
9 A new piano
10 A cheerful mind
11 Riches
12 Good health
13 To be handsome
14 Happiness
15 To excel others
16 Many friends
17 To do good to others
18 To travel
19 To live in Germany
20 A large garden
21 To make others happy
22 Retirement
23 A happy home
24 A faithful companion
25 To go abroad
26 To live alone
27 A true friend
28 To be talented
29 To have no enemies
30 To be married
31 To be beloved
32 To live in the country
33 To hear from an absent friend
34 A trip to Gretna
35 A carriage
36 To be learned
37 To see those you love
38 A letter
39 A good library
40 Wealth

BY WHOM ARE YOU BELOVED?

1 A poor foreigner
2 One who has not courage to tell you so
3 Yourself, most devotedly
4 A sincere friend
5 A person near you
6 Nobody
7 A person now absent
8 Your equals
9 The friend of your heart
10 A bookseller
11 An enthusiast
12 An estimable person
13 Your dependents
14 An old miser
15 A young physician
16 An honourable person
17 A descendant of Adam
18 One whom you love in return
19 One who has been abroad
20 A new acquaintance
21 By all with whom you are acquainted
22 There lies the secret
23 The person whom you wish
24 One of whom you often think
25 An agriculturalist
26 A traveller
27 One whom you met yesterday

28 Somebody—you know who
29 A relation
30 A wealthy old bachelor (or maid)
31 A stranger
32 The person you are thinking of
33 A genius
34 A fop (or belle)
35 A bookworm
36 A flirt
37 The person you last danced with
38 One who will very soon tell you so
39 A ninny
40 A musician

WHY ARE YOU BELOVED?

1 For your good temper
2 „ modesty
3 „ constancy
4 „ sweet voice
5 „ penetration
6 „ polite behaviour
7 „ affability
8 „ generosity
9 „ bright eyes
10 „ simplicity
11 „ graceful address
12 „ candour
13 „ sensibility
14 „ sweet smile
15 „ independent spirit
16 „ liberality
17 For your fidelity
18 „ wit
19 „ musical talents
20 „ long pedigree
21 „ charitable disposition
22 „ fortune
23 „ humility
24 „ quietness
25 „ amiability
26 „ good taste
27 „ mental endowments
28 „ industry
29 „ elegance
30 For your beauty
31 „ general good qualities
32 „ wisdom
33 „ mirthfulness
34 „ good sense
35 „ truthfulness
36 „ great abilities
37 For the contents of your cash box
38 Through sympathy
39 Because no one can help loving you
40 Because you are not well known

DO YOU INTEND TO MARRY OR NOT?

1 No, it would be too much trouble
2 Yes, as soon as you have a chance
3 No, not upon any account
4 Yes, from a feeling of pity
5 No, no one will have you
6 No, a single life is preferable
7 Yes, if asked
8 No, you are too partial to ease and liberty
9 Yes, for a home
10 No, you are too great a flirt
11 No, for the best of reasons
12 Certainly
13 Not if you hesitate much longer
14 Yes, if your temper does not prevent it
15 No, you are too satirical
16 Yes, to a person whom you saw last Thursday
17 Yes, in about ten years' time
18 You have a decided inclination to do so
19 Yes, to some one twice your own age
20 No, you are too old and whimsical
21 No, you dislike children
22 Yes, if you seize the first opportunity
23 Yes, in about three months
24 Not before next Christmas
25 Yes, from a spirit of revenge
26 Never
27 Not with your own consent
28 Yes, for wealth
29 Yes, as soon as you conveniently can
30 It is really very doubtful
31 Yes, if you can secure the person whom you love
32 Yes, for love
33 Not without some prospect of improving your circumstances
34 No, you are too fond of being your own master
35 Of course you will
36 Yes, if you can find any one sufficiently handsome
37 Yes, if your mama will allow you
38 If you can ensure domestic peace
39 No, you are too fond of the 'feline' race
40 Yes, a native of New Zealand

COTTAGE FARMER'S CALENDAR.

BY MARTIN DOYLE.—NOVEMBER.

THE FIELD.

WHERE wheat sowing on clay land is still going on, it is of great importance to take advantage of a dry state of soil as the trampling of the land when in a wet state is very injurious. It is better to postpone sowing—whatever be the mode adopted—until the weather be favourable; forcing a season is rarely attended with success. It is better to be late in sowing, if a good condition of soil be thereby obtained for the reception of the seed, than to sow at an earlier period—if the land be then clogged—for the mere object of gaining time. In Ireland, since the almost general abandonment of naked fallows there, wheat sowing is usually deferred until after the removal of the potato crop at the end of the last or the commencement of the present month, according as the weather may be open or disposed to frost. 'The dark days of November,' have been proverbially the favourite season for wheat sowing. But, though darkness promotes the germination of all seeds, there is no satisfactory reason on this account for delaying the sowing of wheat beyond Michaelmas if the land be ready to receive the seed, because the covering of earth which the seed receives is a sufficient protection to it the influence of light, which always tends to prevent seeds from undergoing the chemical process necessary to the starting of the germ into life.

There is a fixed opinion among even enlightened Irish farmers, that a heavy covering of the seed gives the future roots more fixity in the earth, and therefore imparts more vigour to the plants. In consequence of this notion, the practice in Ireland is to plough the seed wheat into the fallow land, or to cover it by spade and shovel with the soil raised from the furrows of the narrow ridges on which it has been cast. The fact is that a covering of from one and a-half to three inches of earth—according to the nature of the soil—is a sufficient depth for grains of wheat. The lengthening of stem below the surface gives no additional fixity to the roots, which naturally take a due hold of the soil, even though the grains be laid very near the surface; the downward tendency of the roots and the upward tendency of the stems are matters of certainty if the seed grows.

If slugs begin to attack the young wheat plants turn a flock of ducks on the field at day-break and in the evening, this will have the double effect of fattening the ducks and of clearing the land of the nasty thieves. If ducks cannot be procured, turnip leaves should be strewn over the wheat in the evening; they will be found on removal in the morning to have attracted the slugs.

Sow rye for early soiling in spring; and bigg or winter barley, where this grain answers.

Get in carrots, parsnips, and mangel wurtzel. The globe varieties of the turnip will have been fed off by sheep or removed to houses or stacked completely in order to clear the ground if it be wanted for wheat: but where barley is to follow, and Swedes are the turnip crop, these should be reserved for the spring keep, and may be left in the ground until a more advanced season.

Draining.—Draining of every description should now be carried on when the weather permits. This is the time for preparing for next year's cropping. If this work be neglected, under any pretence, where it is required, a poor harvest from the undrained soil may deservedly be the return next year. If land be worth holding at all, it should be treated in the best manner. The occupier of land diseased from moisture, who has the means of draining, and yet will not drain, does not deserve to prosper.

No unploughed stubbles should now be seen. Furrows should be kept open.

Cattle.—All young stock should now be brought into the straw-yard, and the rest should be in byres or boxes, or sheds, as the case may be.—The Christmas markets must be supplied, and the fattening of all animals destined for them should be assiduously attended to.

The Kitchen Garden.—Early dwarf peas, and the ash or the walnut-leaved potatos *may* be put down early in this month (October is a better season) though without any certainty of success, unless great care be taken with the growing plants, when severe spring frosts set in. The ground for the peas should be well dug and manured, and when they are coming up, lay some chopped furze over them, to guard them from the attacks of mice and slugs; and raise the bed for a potato crop some inches above the level of the furrows, in order to preserve it in a dry state. When the young potato puts forth its leaves, it should be moulded from the furrows, and on every appearance of frost, a covering of some sort should be laid over the bed. The plants raised in drills are rarely so early in produce as those in beds. Give celery as much earthing as it will bear, but do not touch it while the earth is in a clayey state. Artichokes should be dressed for the winter, and well protected by litter. The forcing of a few plants of sea-kale and rhubarb may be commenced in the course of the month. This is done without pots, by laying a quantity of sifted coal ashes, rotten tan, peat mould, or sand, over the crowns. When these are thus covered, one or more furrows should be opened between the rows of plants, the earth raised from the trenches, and laid over the plants, and beaten with the spade into a sharp ridge. The trenches should be two feet wide at top, but narrower at the bottom, lest the heat of the stable-litter, when laid there, should scorch the roots, which would be the case if the earth were stripped too much from them.

A covering of well-rotted dung or compost, three inches thick, should now be forked into the asparagus beds, if this work was not executed last month.—Dig or trench every vacant space, but do not tread the earth—more especially if it be clayey, in wet weather; it should be kept in as porous a state as possible. Prepare compost heaps, and turn those which were collected at an early period.

Flower Garden.—Plant stocks for budding roses, in rich soil: turfy loam is the best. To relieve the bare appearance of beds and borders from which annuals have departed altogether, or deciduous plants have for a season disappeared, some herbaceous plants may be brought from a reserve plot, with balls of earth to their roots, and planted in the beds or borders until their removal to their quarters shall be necessary. Tan and matting will be found the best occasional coverings for delicate herbaceous plants left out. Take up dahlias when affected by the frost, and lay the strong tubers (with dry earth remaining on them) by the heels in a dry airy house. Keep the walks perfectly clear, and fork leaf mould, &c. into the beds and borders.

Fruit Garden.—Loosen wall-trees that require re-arrangement and training, and nail them afresh. If insects appear, wash the stems and branches with a solution of lime, slaked with chamber-lye. Cut away all old wood of raspberries, and tie up the remaining stems to firm stakes. Suckers (with balls of earth) may be removed to vacant parts of south walls. Put fresh turfy loam wherever wall trees are to be planted, and mulch those that require it.

VARIETIES.

Thrilling incident.—At a temperance meeting in Philadelphia some years ago, a learned clergyman spoke in favour of wine as a drink, demonstrating it quite to his own satisfaction to be scriptural, gentlemanly, and healthful. When the clergyman sat down, a plain, elderly man rose, and asked the liberty of saying a few words. 'A young friend of mine (said he) who had long been intemperate, was at length prevailed on to take the pledge of entire abstinence from all that could intoxicate. He kept the pledge faithfully for some time, though the struggle with his habit was fearful, till one evening, in a social party, glasses of wine were handed round. They came to a clergyman present, who took a glass saying a few words in vindication of the practice. 'Well,' thought the young man, if a clergyman can take wine, and justify it so well, why not I?' So he also took a glass. It instantly rekindled his fiery and slumbering appetite; and after a rapid downward course, he died of *delirium tremens*—a raving madman!' The old man paused for utterance; and was just able to add—'That young man was *my only son*, and the clergyman was the *Reverend Doctor who has just addressed this assembly!*'—*Banner of Temperance.*

Talking about it.—There are moral virtues whose bloom will tolerate but very little breath. The more men talk about their loyalty, their love, and their religion, the less they are likely to be believed.—*Times.*

Vandyke and Rubens.—A curious anecdote is told concerning Rubens' Descent from the Cross. It was said that while Rubens was painting this masterpiece, his pupils bribed his servant to admit them to their master's painting room, one day when he had gone into the country, and was not expected to return till the evening. One of them, pushed by his companions, fell against the picture, and rubbed out the Magdalen's arm, and the Virgin's cheek and chin, which Rubens had just finished. Great was the consternation, and all sought to escape; but the servant, who would naturally have to bear the responsibility of the accident, as he alone was entrusted with the key of the painting room, locked the door and declared that no one should leave till Magdalen's arm and the Virgin's cheek were restored to their pristine state. No objection could be urged to this, for it was but just; and as the pupils were prisoners, they capitulated. A general vote was taken, in order that the election might fall upon the most competent of their number, and one of them was chosen, who trembling, seized his master's palette and brushes, and encouraged by his fellow pupils, repaired the damage with such perfection that Rubens not only failed to discover the accident, but while casting a satisfied glance on the morrow upon his performances of the preceding day, remarked, pointing to Magdalen's arm and the Virgin's head—'That head and arm are not the worst part of my yesterday's work.' The young man entitled to a share of Rubens' self-paid compliment was Vandyke.

The learned elephant.—'That's a wery knowing hanimal of yours,' said a cockney gentleman, to the keeper of an elephant.

'Very,' was the cool rejoinder.

'He performs strange tricks and hantics, does he?' inquired the cockney, eyeing the animal through his glass.

'Surprisin!' retorted the keeper, 'we've larned him to put money in that box you see away up there. Try him with a dollar.' The cockney handed the elephant a dollar, and sure enough he took it in his trunk and placed it in a box high up out of reach.

'Well, that is very hextraordinary—hastonishing, truly!' said the green one, opening his eyes. 'Now lets see him take it out, and 'and it back.'

'*We never larns him that trick,*' retorted the keeper, with a roguish leer, and then turned away to stir up the monkeys and punch the hyenas.

Cheapening Patents.—What objection is there to adopting in Great Britain an improvement made in the last new patent law, in France? It is to allow the patent to be paid for by twelve instalments, instead of in one sum at first. This has been found a very acceptable amelioration by poor inventors, whilst the government has also reaped some benefit from it, the income derived from this branch of revenue being greater than it was under the old law.—*Builder.*

The Corner.

Beware of dogs.—Among other dangerous characters against whom the Christians at Philippi were cautioned, one class is characterised as 'dogs.' 'Beware of dogs.' This remarkable caution being spoken of in company, a gentleman present thus sententiously amplified it. 'Beware of the surly mastiff, who would, if not prevented by his chain, fly upon and tear you to pieces. Beware of fawning spaniels, who caress to pilfer or decoy. Beware of snarling curs, who will not be pleased or satisfied with any reasonable treatment. And, above all, beware of troublesome puppies, who, though not of sufficient consequence either to please or offend, will yet, if encouraged, beguile you of your time, and perhaps fret and discompose your temper, by their frequent and non-essential interruptions, from which neither profit nor pleasure can possibly be derived.

IT DEPENDS ON CIRCUMSTANCES.

Does it? Let us—that is, you and I, reader—try the question a little, and see what we can make of it.

What, in the first place is a circumstance? It means something connected with a fact which may be taken away, and yet the fact remain; just as apples may be plucked from the branches, and the tree left. It relates also to having and degree. Lord Bacon says, 'None but a virtuous man can hope well in all circumstances;' thereby signifying that whatever be a man's condition, he may, by the practice of virtue, hope with a truly hopeful spirit. It is common to speak of good and bad circumstances pretty much as we speak of hot or cold weather: and most persons appear to think that we have as little control over the one as over the other.

Now, you were too late for the train this morning—or were not in time at your work—or breakfast was not ready when you went home. Did all these failures depend on circumstances? The bed was warm, and the pillow soft, and you felt drowsy, and so laid a little longer, and the precious moment was lost. This would account for missing the train—being late at work—or for your wife's not having risen soon enough to light the fire. Well, it seems clear that in these cases the bed and blankets are the circumstances; they are the something connected with a fact which are not essential to it; because if beds and blankets were all to disappear, there would still be men and women. Men and women can and do exist without beds and blankets, so we must look for the explanation in another quarter. Was not the failure entirely in yourself? Don't you feel that you *could* have got up in time had you liked? Don't you know that inside your skull, or brain-shell, as the Germans call it, you have a brain ready to answer all the demands you may make upon it, and a great many more besides? You had only to give a vigorous summons, to say 'I will!' and before you were aware, you would have found yourself out of bed and half-dressed.

Look at that man out of a situation! see how he becomes more and more dejected day after day! He tells you that circumstances went against him, and can hardly believe that he had any share in the disaster, or that he can do much to better himself. Poor fellow! if he would only make up his mind to take any work that offers, he would soon find out that a man makes his own circumstances, and enter again on a course of prosperity. The brain and muscle are there waiting, but he wont give the call, and so shifts along till something, as he says, turns up; and by-and-by this something turns him into the poor-house, where he buries his manhood's capabilities in the bog of pauperism.

I once met an emigrant in the backwoods of New York State, and had a talk with him about his ways and means. 'Bless ye, Sir,' he said, 'if I had only worked half as hard in Old England as I am obliged to do here, I need not have come, and should have been a sight better off.' This man had changed one set of hardships for another set a good deal harder; and experience had taught him that the spirit of a man is above circumstances. Had he worked well in England, he need not have gone to America.

How often do we hear it said that man is the creature or victim of circumstances: but is it really so? If at any time government tries to exceed its powers and overtax us, we make a great outcry about resisting tyranny, and all that sort of thing; and if a grocer sells us raisin stalks and blackthorn leaves for tea, we are apt to get out of temper with him, and declare that we wont be victimised. And yet we submit to oppression, to curtailments of liberty, to deprivation of our rights in a thousand ways without murmuring, because *it depends on circumstances.*

You will say, perhaps, that you were badly brought up. That excuse might be received if you were still a child; but you have arrived at years of discretion, and can think for yourself, so the excuse will avail you no longer. Do you try to alter? You were not obliged to stay and gossip when you were out on an errand—you were not obliged to stop and drink because Jem Stokes did—you were not obliged to be playing at dominoes, billiards, or skittles instead of being behind your counter or in your workshop—you were not obliged to borrow five pounds to go betting at the races—you were not obliged to dress your family beyond your means because your wife said it would not do to be outdone by her neighbour Mrs. Gadfly—in short, you were not obliged to get into difficulties.

So my friends, old and young, gentle or simple, be honest! Lay the blame in the right quarter. When you find yourselves in a predicament, confess that you failed in judgment or gave way to temptation. Say, 'It depended on me to do better, and I would not. It depended on me—a being able to choose between right and wrong—to choose whether I would go straight or crooked, and I went crooked.' Avow with the emigrant, that if you had only worked half as hard on the other side of the line, you would not be where you are. Be honest.

There is, however, one matter in which it may be said *it depends on circumstances;* and this is the training of children. Infants and young children are very imperfect reasoners, and it depends on what they see and hear whether they grow up a joy or a sorrow. Children brought up in a well-ordered home where no clamour and confusion prevail are more likely to turn out well-conducted members of society than those reared in dirt and disorder. Those who are taught to take healthful exercise and recreation, to value books, to respect the Sabbath, will be more reasonable and tractable in after life than those who have been neglected. Those treated with kindness will, as a rule, manifest kindness. Those trained to feel that right is right, will incline to continue therein. Habit is often stronger than principle. And thus it depends on circumstances whether children shall grow up to be virtuous and self-reliant; or whether, as men and women, they shall waste their lives in the fatal delusion that they can do nothing whatever towards their amendment.

LEAVE TO THRIVE.

A CHAPTER FOR WIVES.

'A MAN must have his wife's leave to thrive.' This saying was once quoted in the presence of Paul Hickson, such a testy little man, you would hardly meet his like. He bristled up, and maintained, while professing the utmost complaisance towards the fair sex, that it was a great indignity and insult to a man to suppose that he should ask his wife's leave to do any thing that he thought proper. No, no. Paul knew better where the government was vested, than to admit such a degrading idea. Ask his wife's leave, indeed! It was what he never did, nor ever would do, that he was quite sure of.

'Well,' said his more placid neighbour, 'be thankful if you have got it without asking for.'

'No, sir,' replied the angry man, 'I would not be beholden to my wife for it, if she offered it to me. My wife is very well in her place, and nobody can say that I am not a kind husband to her—but to have her leave to thrive!—ha, ha, ha! It is too ridiculous to think of. No, no. If I have to wait for my wife's leave to thrive, I would rather do without thriving.'

'Well, Paul, you must take your own way. You shall please yourself, if you can.'

But whether or not Paul Hickson would admit it, is the saying true? Look round on your acquaintance, reader, and judge for yourself. A glance among mine leads me to conclude that it is. For miles round, there is not a more steady, industrious, inoffensive man, than Reeves, the mason. Early and late, that man may be seen at his work. He has a civil word for every body, and is never too busy or too tired to do a kind action. He has, and he deserves, the good word of every body in the parish. Such a man, in the common course of things, ought to be getting up in the world, living in plenty and comfort, and laying by money, either to avail himself of a favourable opportunity of rising, or to provide against the pressure of unfavourable circumstances. But such is not the case. Poor Reeves is one of those who, as "Poor Richard" says, may 'keep his nose to the grindstone all his life, and die not worth a groat at last.' The thing is this:—When Reeves set about to choose a wife, he unfortunately sent his wits a wool-gathering, and chose not an active, thrifty woman, who would, if need be, put her hand to the work, and pull with her husband, or at any rate, bestir herself to make the best of what he brought home; but an idle, helpless dawdle, a girl with a pretty face enough—if a face can be pretty without a cheerful bright expression—and one that very likely was smartly dressed when she was on her preferment, but in-doors, as idle a slattern as ever was seen; not only destitute of that household skill that every woman ought to possess, but without energy to attempt to acquire it. She cannot, or will not, bestir herself to get the meals in a comfortable manner, or in proper time—often has not left her bed when her husband comes home to breakfast—and in the evening may be seen lolling over the door-hatch, with her arms under her apron, while the house is all at sixes and sevens with the litter of the day, the fire-place not swept up, the fire nearly or quite out; and at least five chances out of ten, if matters above stairs were explored, the beds might be found just as they were quitted in the morning. The poor man cannot sit down in one bit of comfort. The clothes are worn out before their time, by being left about in the dust, and by the neglect of that 'stitch in time' which 'saves nine;' and every thing about the house is left to go to rack and ruin. Whatever needlework has to be done, is put out—for Mrs. Reeves is too idle and too notionless to do it herself—and a woman is hired once a week to put the house a little to rights for Sunday. All these needless expenses run away with what might be saved, and if a great deal more were spent, no comfort could be secured to a family, the female head of which is an idle slattern. It is to be hoped her husband will not be tempted to seek at the public-house what he cannot find at home, though that is the way in which many a decent well-meaning man has been driven to bad courses; but as for thriving, that is quite out of the question, and poor Reeves has long since given it up in despair. *He cannot get leave from his wife to do it.*

John Hunt, the pastrycook, at one time seemed likely enough to thrive—indeed, was thriving rapidly; and it was often predicted among the neighbours that he would one day ride in his carriage. But at that time Hunt was going on in a steady frugal way, employing as little subordinate help as possible. Mrs. Hunt often lent a hand at busy times, and always sat at her needlework in a little back-parlour, where she could overlook the shop. But as business prospered, Mrs. Hunt became proud and extravagant. She wanted to dress as fine, and keep as much company, and make as much display, as her neighbours across the road. Whether they were right or wrong in what they did, is nothing to the purpose. Mrs. Hunt, just in proportion as she set herself to copy them, retreated from helping her husband to thrive. She worried or wheedled him into one expensive purchase after another, which put a stop to his good old plan of frequently depositing a few pounds in the bureau—a resource which had often enabled him to take advantage of a favourable turn in the markets. Nearly all the ready money of the shop was consumed as fast as received. Often a pound or two went secretly to the milliner or the mercer, and many bills were left unpaid. Unfortunately—yes, though at the time it was hailed as the most fortunate circumstance that could have occurred, the result has proved it far otherwise—a distant relation left Mrs. Hunt a legacy of a few hundred pounds, and now she not only felt herself justified in enlarging her expense, but even fancied herself called upon to do so. This and that, which did very well formerly, would not do now for people in their circumstances. To render personal assistance in the business, Mrs. Hunt was fully convinced, was extremely vulgar, and quite out of character. Even the confinement of the back-parlour she deemed prejudicial to her health and spirits. Tea-parties, public walks and sea-side excursions, were much more congenial, and she was satisfied that they could very well afford it. All this while, how did business thrive? An additional journeyman became necessary to assist in the bakehouse, and serve in the shop; not because the business had increased, but because the mistress was above rendering the assistance she had formerly done. Beside this, it was found that the flour and other ingredients did not go so far as they used to do, nor was the till so productive as when Mrs. Hunt kept her station in the back-parlour. One and another of the servants was suspected, but nothing was proved, except that poor Hunt and his family were from day to day defrauded and impoverished by imperceptible means. There is too much reason to fear that Hunt himself was beguiled or discouraged into a neglect of business and recklessness of expense. Certain it is, that he who long acted on the principle of making no bargain except when he had resources in the bureau to meet it, and who seldom had to turn away from an advantageous offer, was driven to deal where he could obtain the longest credit, though furnished with inferior articles, and on less advantageous terms. Old and respectable business connexions were broken up, customers displeased, business falling off, and ruin staring in the face the man who once bid fair to be one of the most prosperous tradesmen in the town. Was it not *his wife who would not give him leave to thrive?*

How is it that Charles Wilson, a young man of integrity, ability, and good address, has been twice thrown out of a good situation? Just because he has got a prying, tattling wife, who has been unprincipled enough to listen to private conversation, and to possess herself of secret information by peeping into the letters and books in her husband's desk, and foolish enough to communicate to her cronies the knowledge she has thus dishonourably obtained. Thus the affairs of Wilson's employers have been divulged, and Wilson, to his amazement and distress, dismissed as a person unworthy of confidence; and so, without any fault of his own, a worthy young man is deprived of the hope of deserved preferment, and thrown out of employ, or compelled to take up with something of a very inferior order. No young man could better deserve success, or was more likely to obtain it, but *his wife would not give him leave.*

The wife of Draper, the fishmonger, has done great injury to her husband's business, by her haughty manner of stalking through the shop—for lack of a private door—drawing herself up with a scornful air, as if she really fancied herself polluted or disgraced by having any thing to do with the vulgarity of trade. More than one good customer has been offended and driven away by hearing her in a peremptory tone, answer the apprentice, whom they had directed to inquire when the master would be in the way, or what supply of fish was expected, 'I know nothing about it.' Did she not thus say, as expressly as in words, '*I will not suffer my husband to thrive?*'

The wife of Sims, the printer, is a clever, active woman, and in many respects a really good wife; but her temper is hasty and resentful. She is far too ready to take offence, often when no offence was intended, and no injury done.

But, not content with indulging her own angry feelings, she is continually getting her husband into petty broils, and setting him against his neighbours, by reporting to him some disrespectful remark or neglect of courtesy, which ought to be resented, or some petty encroachment which ought to be resisted. Among her favourite expressions are these, 'I would not put up with it.' 'You are a man of no spirit.' 'You have not the spirit of a worm, to be trodden upon in this manner, and not turn.' 'I would not shake hands with him, if he offered it, nor speak, if I met him in the street.' Under her influence, good servants have been hastily dismissed, angry letters written, newspaper squabbles taken up, customers offended, ill-will cherished among neighbours, and a man who is not naturally of a quarrelsome temper, comes to be looked upon with general dislike. It is very true that men should act upon their own convictions of right and wrong; but it is equally true, that people are almost unconsciously acted upon by the influence of those who are always near to them, and are often led to take different views of right and wrong from what they would have formed, if left to their own unbiassed judgment. A continual dropping in a very rainy day and an angry and contentious woman are both alike. Such influence in a wife wears through the better feelings of her husband, and through his comfort and interest too, and *will not give him leave to thrive.*

MAXIMS.

To embitter domestic life: Maintain your opinion on small matters at the point of the bayonet.—To keep yourself in a state of discontent: Set your heart on everything exactly to your mind.—To involve yourself in inextricable difficulties: Shape your course of action not by fixed principles, but by temporary expedients.—To provide yourself with abundant matter for shame and repentance: Act under the influence of passion.—To die without accomplishing anything: Always intend to do something great hereafter, but neglect the present humble opportunity of usefulness.—To destroy your authority over your children: When you are in a good humour give them sugar-plums; when in an ill humour, blows and reproaches.—To gain a permanent reputation: Endeavour to be, rather than to appear, good. To gain extensive usefulness: Seize the present opportunity, great or small, and improve it to the utmost.—To govern children (and men too): Commend them oftener than you blame them.—To be a successful reprover: First convince men by substantial acts of kindness that you love them.—To have influence with the public: Take a positive rather than a negative position.—To be always contented: Consider that you will never in this life be free from annoyances, and that you may as well bear them patiently as fret about them.—To enjoy all that this world has to give: Set not your heart upon it, but make God your portion.

FEMALE EDUCATION.

There are few greater mistakes than the prevailing disposition among people in middling life to bring up their daughters as fine ladies, neglecting useful knowledge for showy accomplishments. "The notions," (it has been justly observed) "which girls thus educated acquire of their own importance, is in an inverse ratio of their true value. With just enough of fashionable refinement to disqualify them for the duties of their proper station, and render them ridiculous in a higher sphere, what are such fine ladies fit for? Nothing, (answers the same shrewd observer) nothing that I know, but to be kept like wax figures in a glass case. Wo to the man that is linked to one of them! If half the time and money wasted on their music and dancing and embroidery, were employed in teaching them the useful arts of making shirts and mending stockings, and managing household affairs, their present qualifications as wives and mothers would be increased fourfold."

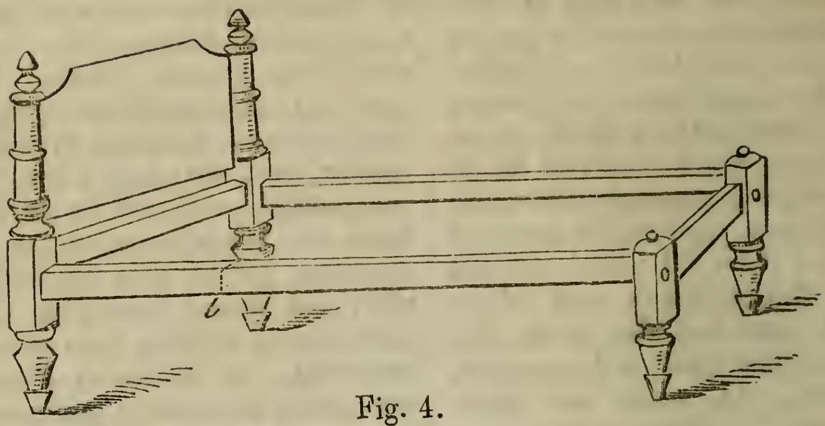

Fig. 4.

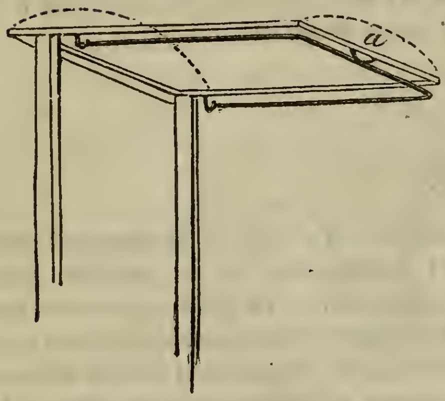

Fig. 5.

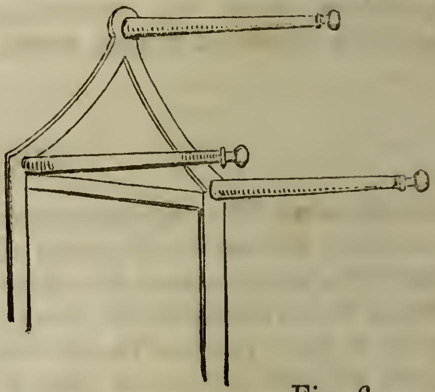

Fig. 6.

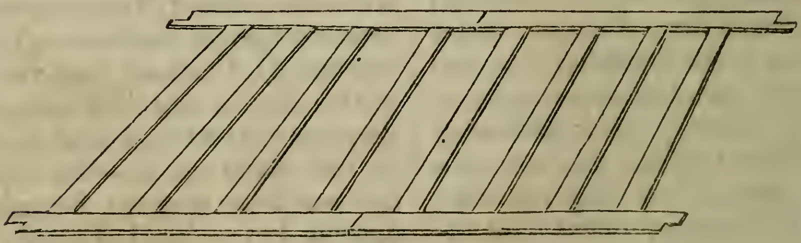

Fig. 7.

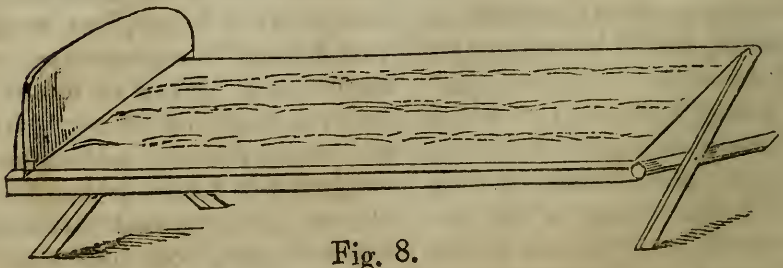

Fig. 8.

HOUSEHOLD FURNITURE.

SECOND ARTICLE

The bedsteads described in our first article on this subject were mostly of the better sort; we come now to notice some of a simpler and less expensive make, which would not be too dear even for labourers' cottages. Figure 4 represents what is called a stump-bedstead: frequently the head-posts are left square, but, as will be seen, the appearance is very much improved by their being turned, and the additional cost for this is not great. The head-posts should be three feet in height, and the foot-posts, or stumps, eighteen inches; and from the floor to the top of the rail should be about seventeen inches. Of course these measurements may be altered and made higher or lower according to convenience. The broad head-board will be found very useful in keeping the bolster and pillow well in their place. The head and foot of such a bedstead as this are not made to take apart, but are strongly glued and pinned when first put together by the workman, so that the bedstead can be put up with only four screws, thus saving time and trouble.

By having head-posts of six, seven, or eight feet high, either turned or square, this bedstead may be made into a half-tester bedstead, as shown in *fig.* 5, which represents the tester lath attached to the top of the posts. It is generally kept in its place by a bracket and a bedscrew which goes down into the post; but it would not be difficult to secure it by some more simple means. The rod for the curtain should be made of iron, rather less than half-an-inch in thickness. The corners of the lath may be left square or round; and to the edge of this the valance or drapery is tacked by small nails, not driven close in, so that the hangings can be taken down at any time to be washed or cleaned. Different sorts of testers may be contrived; instead of the lath being flat, it may be on a sweep, as shown by the dotted lines *a*; or three poles may be fixed in a frame, and so fastened by screws to the back of the head-posts, *fig.* 6. This is a convenient arrangement, as it may be taken down for a time when curtains are not wanted, and it may be used with a stump-bedstead, or a French bedstead similar to *fig.* 3 in the former article. The furniture is made to slip on to the centre pole by a bag or pipe, or is simply tied by a tape, and from this pole it hangs down on each side to the floor, being looped up during the day in the usual manner of curtains.

By making a joint where the dotted line is seen at *b*, *fig.* 4, this bedstead, whether stump or half-tester, may be made to turn up, whereby much space is gained in a small room during the day. But where turn-up bedsteads are used, especial pains should be taken first to ventilate the bedclothes well by opening the window; for if they be turned up warm, they always have an unpleasant smell, and in time become unwholesome.

From long experience we consider that a lath-bottom is the best that can be used for a bedstead: there is much to be said in favour of it. First, the lacing and stretching of a sacking bottom always take a good deal of time, and many persons make a sad bungle of the operation; then the sacking, unless of the very best quality, soon gives way, cracks and breaks, or the lace-holes wear out, particularly in children's beds, which are often wetted, and most persons know how apt a sacking is to settle down to a deep hollow. Then, again, the nailing on of a sacking splits the wood very much, and every crack is a harbour for vermin; and people so seldom think of cleaning the under side of the sacking, that whether there are cracks or not, spiders and other unpleasant creatures collect there and propagate, the more so, as it is nearly always dark under a bed. The writer of the present article has frequently had to take down bedsteads in the houses of people who fancied themselves cleanly in their habits, yet they never thought of brushing the under side of their sackings, or of letting the air blow freely under the bed, and the consequence was, that multitudes of noxious insects would breed in the snug retreats afforded by a sacking. To see and smell them was dreadful.

We recommend in all cases a lath-bottom, made of inch deal or pine; not to be cut separately into the side rails, but to be framed together as in *fig.* 7, which saves cutting the rails; and the fewer ins and outs there are in a bedstead the better. This lath frame is kept in place by the little corner piece being cut out at each end of the side-pieces, which fit against the posts and prevent slipping. For convenience of lifting about, if the bedstead be large, it may be cut in two and hinged on the under side in the middle; so that, when folded, it can be easily carried. This sort of bottom gives very little trouble; it can be laid in its place in less than no time, as the saying is, and can be removed as quickly; thereby affording the readiest possible means for cleanliness. It must not, however, be forgotten, that when a lath bottom is used, a thin straw mattress is needed to come between it and the bed; but we shall enter further on this part of the subject when we come to notice bedding materials.

The simplest kind of bedstead is shown at *fig.* 8: this is called a horse-bedstead, and in some cases it is found very serviceable and convenient, as it may be folded together and stood away in a corner when not wanted; or in cases of sudden illness, when a nurse or attendant has to lie in a room with the patient, it can always be made use of, and at the shortest notice. The head-board is screwed to two clamps which are rounded at their lower ends to fit into holes at the end of the side-rail, and the putting of this into its place or taking of it out is all that has to be done to prepare this bedstead for sleeping on. The bottom must be of sacking or sail-cloth, as laths cannot be fitted to it.

A full-sized bedstead, whether of the best or common description, should be six feet six inches long; but a horse-bedstead may be made of any length, so as to suit children, or to be used in place of a crib.

CURIOSITY;

OR, A FAULT TOO LATE REPENTED OF.

A NARRATIVE FOR YOUNG PEOPLE.

THERE are certain qualities in the human mind, which although capable of being most usefully directed, too often become from their perversion, the sources of unmitigated evil to society. This observation may eminently be applied to curiosity, or the desire of *knowing*, which, rightly exercised, will lead to useful habits of investigation; but, if allowed to expend itself on idle or forbidden topics, may prove the spring of much misery to ourselves and others.

The following narrative from real life may perhaps best illustrate our meaning.

It was in 1793. The men who at that time presided over the destinies of France ruled it with an iron hand; and the guillotine, that terrible instrument of despotic cruelty, decimated those unhappy beings who were suspected of favouring the enemies of the Revolution.

It was a moment when the utmost circumspection was needed even in the ordinary circumstances of life, and when an indiscreet word often involved a whole family in misery and ruin.

M. and Madame Cernay, with their two children, inhabited a pretty country house in the neighbourhood of Tours.

Strangers to intrigue, dwelling apart from the stormy sea of politics, beloved by all around them, it seemed as if their course was destined to be one of undisturbed repose.

M. Cernay devoted himself to the education of Edward, his only son, while Madame C. endeavoured to prepare her daughter for the duties of domestic life.

Edward was fourteen years of age, Louisa nine. He was of a gentle and studious disposition, and she was good, kind-hearted, and charitable, but inquisitive and indiscreet to an almost hopeless degree:—curiosity and indiscretion are too often sister faults. The indulgence of this tendency marred even the best actions of Louisa's life. For instance, if a beggar came to the door, she was always ready to assist him, for she had a generous disposition, but she never let him go till he had told her the whole history of his misfortunes; whence he came, whither he was going, and what was passing in his neighbourhood. In fact, this one grievous fault spoiled all her good qualities.

It happened one day that M. Cernay received a letter, which he read with an anxious and thoughtful mien, and after he had spoken apart to his wife for a few moments with an air of mystery, Madame de Cernay announced that she was expecting a visit from one of her brothers, who dwelt in the neighbourhood of Paris. She then began to prepare a room for his reception in the most isolated part of the mansion.

M. and Madame Cernay strictly forbade that any mention should be made of their expected visitor.

Louisa's curiosity was excited to the highest pitch. Who could this uncle be, of whom she had never heard, and who seemed now to be spoken of for the first time? Why did her father look so thoughtful on the receipt of his letter? Wherefore all this mystery?

M. Auguste (this was the name given by M. Cernay to his pretended brother-in-law) quickly followed his letter.

He was about forty years of age, of polished manners, and Mons. and Madame Cernay always spoke to him with a certain degree of deference. Louisa directly concluded from all this that he was not her uncle; and she could no longer enjoy a moment's peace until she discovered the real name of the stranger, as well as the object of his visit.

It was but seldom that M. Auguste was present at the family repasts. His meals were usually served in his own apartments, which he rarely quitted at any time, and never when there happened to be any visitors in the house.

Louisa could no longer contain herself. She had asked her mother who this gentleman was; but the only reply she could elicit, was a strict prohibition from making in future any inquiries upon the subject. Her father pursued the same course, and her brother Edward, who appeared to know the secret, told her she was not old enough to be entrusted with it. This was too much for her.

To avoid all suspicions, M. Cernay had made no alteration in his usual course of life. He continued every week either to dine with the mayor, or to entertain him at his own house.

It suddenly occurred to Louisa that by means of this mayor, she might find means to satisfy her curiosity.

'The mayor,' she said to herself, 'must know all the people who come here: I will ask him who this gentleman is, that is now staying under our roof. I am sure *he* will tell me in a minute.'

This project she soon found means to realize. One day when the mayor was leaving her father's house, she watched him until he had gone far enough for her to be able to join him without being seen, and then darting off, she was quickly at his side.

'Is it not true, M. François,' she said, 'that when people are brothers and sisters they always say *thou* to each other?'

'Certainly; besides, everybody now-a-days says thou.'

'Is it not also true, M. François, that you could, if you chose, tell me who all the people are who come into the neighbourhood.'

'Yes, of course; but why do you ask me all this, my child?'

'Because, you see——. I will tell you; but you must promise me not to speak about it, for papa and mama desired me not.'

'Very well, then, I will not speak of it.'

'You must know, then, that we have had in our house for the last six weeks, a tall, pale gentleman from the neighbourhood of Paris, whom mama calls her brother, although he certainly is not so; for they say *you* to each other, and he always stays in his room. Now, I want so much to know why he is come? What is his name? And why he does not appear at table when you dine with us? And wont you, M. François, tell me all about it?'

The mayor readily promised to do so, and the little girl returned in great delight, jumping and clapping her hands; for this evening, this very evening, she was to know as much as her brother on this mysterious subject; there would no longer be anything concealed from her.

The evening had closed in, when suddenly the sound of footsteps were heard around M. de Cernay's house. It was the officers of police, by whom every avenue to the mansion was speedily guarded.

The door opened, and the mayor entered, clothed with all the insignia of his office.

'Citizen,' he said, addressing himself to M. Cernay, who stood petrified with astonishment, 'I arrest thee in the name of the law. Thou dost conceal an aristocrat in thine house, and that is a crime punishable with death. Deliver up to us at once the *ci-devant* Comte de V., who is accused of conspiring against the Republic. I did not expect to find him under thy roof, but I have recognized him by the description given me by thy daughter.'

At these words, Louisa uttered a cry of dismay, and threw herself at her father's feet, but M. Cernay turned away from her, making a movement of his hand, as if he would repel her.

The poor child gave a still more piercing shriek, and fell prostrate on the ground. Touched by the sight of her misery, M. and Madame C. stooped to raise her up and to console her: their child was *dead*.

M. and Madame C. as well as Edward were thrown into prison, and it was long before they recovered their liberty, which was at length restored to them through the active interference of the mayor, who was not in reality a hard-hearted man.

As to M. le Comte de V., whom they had received under their roof in grateful memory of a kindness which he had formerly conferred upon them, he was sent to Paris, and consigned to the Abbey prison, where he was put to death during the massacres of September.

How forcibly does this little narrative teach us the danger of indulging deliberately in a single fault, even when it seems to be of that venial kind which belongs rather to the follies of childhood, than to the sins of mature age; for we know not what fatal consequence may result from one act of self-will, disobedience, or indiscretion, or how bitterly we may have cause afterwards to lament that we have committed a "Fault now too late repented of."

THE SECOND WEDDING.

BY SAMUEL BISHOP: 1731–95.

"Thee, Mary, with this ring I wed,"—
So, fourteen years ago, I said.
Behold another ring!—"For what?"
"To wed thee o'er again?" Why not!

With that first ring I married youth,
Grace, beauty, innocence, and truth;
Taste long admired, sense long revered,
And all my Molly then appeared.
If she, by merit since disclosed,
Prove twice the woman I supposed,
I plead that double merit now,
To justify a double vow.

Here, then, to-day (with faith as sure,
With ardour as intense, as pure,
As when, amidst the rites divine,
I took thy troth, and plighted mine)
To thee, sweet girl, my second ring,
A token and a pledge, I bring:
With this I wed, till death us part,
Thy riper virtues to my heart,—
Those virtues which, before untried,
The wife has added to the bride;
Those virtues whose progressive claim,
Endearing wedlock's very name,
My soul enjoys, my song approves,
For Conscience' sake, as well as Love's.

And why?—They show me every hour,
Honour's high thought, Affection's power,
Discretion's deed, sound Judgment's sentence,
And teach me all things but—repentance!

TRUTHFULNESS IN FAMILIES.

Of all happy households, that is the happiest where falsehood is never thought of. All peace is broken up when once it appears that there is a liar in the house. All comfort is gone when suspicion has once entered,—when there must be reserve in talk and reservation in belief. Anxious parents, who are aware of the pains of suspicion, will place generous confidence in their children, and receive what they say freely, unless there is strong reason to distrust the truth of any one. If such an occasion should unhappily arise, they must keep the suspicion from spreading as long as possible, and avoid disgracing their poor child while there is any chance of his cure by their confidential assistance. He should have their pity and assiduous help, as if he were suffering under some disgusting bodily disorder. If he can be cured, he will become duly grateful for the treatment. If the endeavour fails, means must of course be taken to prevent his example doing harm ; and then, as I said, the family peace is broken up, because the family confidence is gone. I fear that, from some cause or another, there are but few large families where every member is altogether truthful. Some who are not morally guilty are intellectually incapable of accuracy. But where all are so organised and so trained as to be wholly reliable in act and word, they are a light to all eyes, and a joy to all hearts. They are a public benefit, for they are a point of general reliance ; and they are privately blessed, within and without. Without, their life is made easy by universal trust ; and within, their home and their hearts, they have the security of rectitude and the gladness of innocence. If we but invoke wisdom, she will come and multiply such homes in our land.—*Household Education by Harriet Martineau.*

AN HONEST CABMAN.

Early in the present year, Mr. H., visiting London, received several sums of money, the whole of which he deposited in his left-hand pocket, but recollecting that he should have occasion in the course of the evening, to make a trifling purchase, and also to employ a cab or an omnibus, took the precaution, before dusk, of separating a few shillings for present use. These he deposited in his right-hand pocket, supposing it to be empty. The evening was extremely dark and foggy, so that it was impossible to distinguish the colour of a coin ; however, on leaving a cab, Mr. H. confidently drew from his pocket two shillings, and paid the driver.

Scarcely had he turned away, when the man came up to him, 'Sir, you have made a mistake ; you have given me a sovereign for a shilling,' at the same time presenting the coin. Mr. H., recollecting the precaution he had taken to avoid such a mistake, hesitated to receive the money.

'Are you sure that *I* gave it to you?' 'Yes, sir, quite sure. This is your money just as you put it into my hand. Besides, I am sure I have not a sovereign about me.'

At that moment, it flashed across the mind of Mr. H. that some time before he had obtained a bright new farthing as a specimen coin, and had probably put it in the pocket, which on that day, forgetting the former transaction, he had appropriated to silver. He no longer hesitated to rectify the mistake, which he of course did without needless explanation, but added another shilling, and expressed his satisfaction in the upright and honourable conduct of the driver.

'Sir,' said the man, 'I do not desire any reward. It was no more than right to give up what did not fairly belong to me. But if you are so good as freely to give me the additional shilling, I assure you it is very acceptable, and return you many thanks. Good night, sir.'

On examination in the light, the coin proved to be, as its owner suspected, no other than a bright farthing. Great, indeed, would have been his regret if the mistake had not been detected until it was too late to make reparation, and the loss had fallen upon a poor man to whom a shilling was evidently a matter of importance. But what would have been the cabman's gain, if he had concealed the supposed mistake, intending to appropriate nineteen shillings which did not belong to him ?

Another fact of recent occurrence forms a good counterpart to the above, and may justly be headed, '*The biter bit* :'—

A servant girl having obtained a holiday, to visit her parents, started, after her day's work, having to walk a mile or more, and then proceed by rail. In a lonesome part of the road, she was attacked by two men, who robbed her of the little bundle containing her clothes and all the money she possessed, amounting only to a few shillings. The poor girl earnestly entreated to be permitted to keep as much as would purchase her railway ticket, as she had more than twenty miles to go. At first the men refused, but afterwards one relented, and threw her two shillings, bidding her make haste to the station. She needed not twice bidding, but picked up the money, and hurried on as fast as terror and agitation would allow. Just as she reached the main road, she heard the sound of hasty footsteps, and soon fancied she could distinguish the voices of the men by whom she had been robbed. Dreading another attack, she hid herself behind a tree, until they had passed; but very soon other passengers approached, and she proceeded in safety to the station. What was her surprise, on taking out the money to pay for her ticket, to find herself in possession of two sovereigns instead of two shillings! The robbers had, no doubt, detected their mistake, and hastened in pursuit of the poor girl, hoping to overtake her before she reached the more frequented road. Failing to do this, they left her to enjoy the ample restitution they had unintentionally made her. "Wealth gotten by vanity is diminished," and "bread of deceit" is never satisfying, but soon becomes "as gravel to th teeth."

Fireside Amusements.

We conclude the following lively games;—for directions see our last number.

WHERE DID YOU SEE YOUR INTENDED THE FIRST TIME?

1 In a railway carriage
2 On the sea
3 At a review
4 In a wood
5 At church
6 In London
7 In the street
8 At an auction
9 At a flower show
10 In a library
11 At a watering place
12 At the lakes
13 In a boat
14 In prison
15 On the stage
16 At a tea party
17 In a bag
18 In the court
19 By the side of a river
20 At the treadmill
21 In a manufactory
22 At home
23 At a concert
24 In an apple tree
25 Under the table
26 At market
27 At the museum
28 At school
29 In a steam packet
30 On the top of a tower
31 By the fire-side
32 In an old abbey
33 In a nunnery
34 In an omnibus
35 In the cellar
36 At a christening
37 At a wedding
38 In the country
39 At a cricket match
40 In a stable

WHAT WAS HE (OR SHE) DOING?

1 Studying
2 Drawing
3 Playing on the piano
4 Reading
5 Quarrelling with a friend
6 Sneering at the present fashion
7 Giving alms
8 Conversing very sensibly
9 Laughing at you
10 Dancing
11 Singing
12 Riding on horseback
13 Laughing
14 Shaving
15 Preparing dinner
16 Ironing
17 Knitting
18 Paying bills
19 Looking very sentimental
20 Scolding the servant
21 Talking nonsense
22 Gathering flowers
23 Buying fish
24 Quizzing you
25 Admiring paintings
26 Playing at chess
27 Settling accounts
28 Cleaning shoes
29 Mending stockings
30 Writing letters
31 Nursing a cat
32 Composing poetry
33 Stealing your heart
34 Flirting
35 Mangling
36 Talking politics
37 Rubbing irons
38 Purchasing furniture
39 Buying carpets
40 Washing

WHAT DO YOU INTEND TO DO WHEN YOU ARE MARRIED?

1 Become very careful
2 Be always at home
3 Be very managing
4 Visit a great deal
5 Be very fond of dress
6 Attend the market
7 Find fault without cause
8 Be very happy
9 Grow miserable
10 Be jealous
11 Run into debt
12 Buy cheap things
13 Be very industrious
14 Become in time reconciled to your fate
15 Be very passionate
16 Ruin your tradesmen
17 Be more generous than just
18 Visit a great deal
19 Grow careless
20 Scandalize your neighbours
21 Be very censorious
22 Quarrel continually
23 Teach your children
24 Become very indolent
25 Make a regular pet of your husband (or wife)
26 Sound your own praise
27 Have a comfortable house
28 Be very self-willed
29 Scold your servants
30 Rock the cradle
31 Grow melancholy
32 Nurse the cat
33 Beat your children
34 Become very serious
35 Grow particularly economical
36 Be very extravagant
37 Repent
38 Become a miser
39 Become very fashionable
40 Wonder that you remained single so long

THE MYSTERIOUS BEING OF MANY NAMES.

I come from the west, or proceed from the south,
I run, and I fall, and I rise,
I cover your face, and I enter your mouth,
And often am seen in your eyes!

The food of the banquet I always prepare,
Yet 'tis with the hermit I shine,
Father Mathew himself will smile on such fare
If he with Victoria should dine.

If I perfume the earth and brighten your bow'r,
And deep in a fountain then lie,
Appear in a dew-drop or sink in a show'r,
Again I mount up to the sky!

In name I am varied, as varied in form,
Each mould I most readily take,
To the shape of a river with ease I conform,
Or the broadest expanse of a lake.

The co-mate of purity, temperance, truth,
Alas! I must own with a sigh,
I'm sometimes conjoin'd, by intemperate youth,
With *spirits* not born for the sky.

Though placid and peaceful, I'm frequently seen,
I roar and I foam in my ire;
As smooth as a glass when the air is serene,
When roused—I am stronger than *fire!*

CHARADES.

1. Truly my first is not a man,
Although the same in feature,
And never can a woman be;
Although a human creature.

My second oft adorns the head
Of pretty Irish lass.
And through the *whole* when very small
Each man alive must pass.

2. Formed long ago, yet made to day,
Employed while others sleep:
What few would wish to give away,
And none would wish to keep.

3. To a word of consent add one-half of a fright,
Next subjoin what you never behold in the night,
These rightly connected, you'll quickly obtain
What millions have seen, but will ne'er see again.

4. I lived before the flood, but still am young;
I speak all languages yet have no tongue,
In schools I've often been, but though no fool,
I ne'er could understand a grammar rule;
Yet when the haughty courtier talks to me,
I've as polite a dialect as he.
I sympathise with all in joy or pain,
Laugh with the merry, with the sad complain;
By nature taught such an obliging way,
I ne'er shall contradict a word you say,
I am no singer, yet I often sing,
I cannot walk—have neither foot nor wing;
And yet to varied parts I rove about,
Am often indoors, and often out.
I follow beggars, lords, and kings,
And see no difference in such earthly things.
I am quite peaceful, but am oft in war
Yet wonder not what people quarrel for.
He who can name me, never saw me,
And the best artist could not draw me.

INTELLECTUAL FEAST.

We have received several interpretations of this mystery, but do not think it necessary to publish any answer, as most of our readers have doubtless already resolved the puzzle.—ED.

ANSWER TO ENIGMATICAL TREES.

IN OCTOBER NUMBER.

We thank our friends for the ingenious replies received to this Enigma; the following bears the palm. Some of the queries will admit of the names of other trees.—ED.

Dear friend, we have seen your queer queries of trees;
And we hope our endeavours to answer will please.
If not, it will perhaps set the question at rest,
When we tell you we've done (not *the best* but) our best.

To begin with the sociable Tree, 'tis the *Tea*;
And the dancing we think sure the *Caper* must be.
The *Beech* must be that which is nearest the sea.
If a *Plum* be ten thousand, this tree will yield well;
And the *Quick* is the busiest to buy or to sell.

The *Bay* has its ships, and the languishing *Pine;*
And the *Willow*, least selfish, makes out our next line.
The *Thorn* bears a curse, and a *Date* is employed,
When chronologists wish just to fill up a void.
The *Cod-ling* the fisherman claims. Sure 'tis clear,
The swate *Honeysuckle's* the Irishman's dear.
The *Meddler* makes mischief by stirring up strife;
And the *Gallows*, the traitor's tree suits to the life—
Or the death if you please:—you may here take your choice.
The *Fir*, is the warmest clad tree.—Now our voice
Inclines to the Layman's restraint in two ways—
The first is *Sick Layman*[*] expressed in one phrase;
Or the *Laylock*, another interpreter says,—
The *Broom* is the housewife's;—and what makes me sad?
Oh, 'tis *Rue*, or 'tis something that's equally bad.
Excuse this vile pun, if we miss of the mark.
But holla! what's next? 'tis the *Nightshade* so dark.
The BREAD-TREE is surely the staff of man's life;
And *O range*, if, like Cœlebs, you search for a wife.
O live, if you'd taste of the joys of that state.
Yet banish the *Box;* 'tis the emblem of strife.
Where *Service* is due, never fail to obey.
Time never stands still, use it well night or day.
He who *Rose* in the morning may spend his hours well.
But the *Sloe* may sleep on till the evening bell.
'Tis *Plane*, when the mother her babe would embrace,
She applies her *Two lips*[†] to its soft little face.
I ne'er saw a Dandy who was not quite *Spruce;*
And a Ship oft sails out by a *Current* or sluice.
Is your timber *Pop(u)lar?* — You've capital store,
Would you take an emetic? You're then *Sycamore.*
We know not why *Southern-wood* faces the North;
And *I vie*[‡] with mankind, are the words that go forth
From the emulous man.—The *Spindle's* the tree
That the emblem of industry ever must be.
If H be *no* letter, we then give you *Ash:*
But if *'tis* a letter, pray turn it to Hash.
The reddish brown tree is the *Mulberry* hight;
And the blue-red the *Lilac*, the Persian's delight.
The *Elder* is old; and as for the next,
The *Cork* is our comment the *bottle* your text
Will the tree in a fog suit the *Hazel* or no?
If not take the *Cloudberry;* perhaps that will go.
What bids the joints pain we had rather not find;
What sets them at ease, were far more to our mind.
But if *Oak* be *O ache*, though we cannot be sure,
It might be a summons some pain to endure.
The *Blackberry* seems to the bog to belong;
And the guess at the *Dameson* we think isn't wrong,
'Tis treacherous to *Peach;* and the worm we despise
Will help to make *Wormwood* whose bitter we prize.
Now for *Home.*[§] for sweet home,—'tis the housewife's delight.
The *Citron* and *Sandal-wood* surely are right.
Any tree that's not split is a tree that's entire?
And the *Clove* is the split one, which many admire.
The *cough* and the *fee*, alias *Coffee*, 'tis granted
Do often unite where the doctor is wanted.—
And as for the *Palm*, whenever friends meet,
We offer it freely to those we would greet.
As pens are so useful, whene'er we indite,
To pass this tree over were surely not right.
The dear *Evergreen* cheers the wintry snows;
And *Dyeing Wood's* living as all the world knows.
The *Lime* with soft foliage pleases the eye:
And the *Birch* tickles something that makes some folks cry;
Yet helps Latin and English,—all this by the bye.
A plague on the *Locust*, whose plagues are untold;
And the *Mug-wort* reminds us of good ale and old,
The *Wood-bine* so prettily turns round and round,
Where its tendrils and blossoms and leaflets abound.
The *Mace* wins or loses estates in an hour;
And the *Vine* turns to *Vinegar* when it grows sour.
The *Lancewood* the warrior justly may prize;
And the *Laurel* must ever be dear in his eyes.
We've rambled about; but we hope you'll excuse,
Since we strove just to tread in the track of your shoes
And if we've not trod in each footstep aright,
Correct us *in mercy*,—we wish you good night.

THE SYLVAN FAMILY.

Evelyn Lodge, *Oct.* 11. 1850.

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[*] Cyclamen.
[†] Tulip-tree.
[‡] Ivy.
[§] Holm Oak.

COTTAGE FARMER'S CALENDAR.

BY MARTIN DOYLE.—DECEMBER.

THE FIELD.—Draw turnips in dry weather, and house them, in order to have a sufficient supply for the cattle in case of very severe weather, which would render the lifting of the turnips day by day difficult. Wheat may still be sown in open weather on land which could not be prepared at an earlier period. Commence the ploughing of lea; its exposure to winter frosts will greatly promote its decomposition. Subsoil as much of your land as you possibly can. If you find that heavy rain washes the finer particles of earth from the higher to the lower parts of a fallow, by the furrows, take this as a hint to drain the land immediately. With a free subsoil, this washing away of the surface will not take place in any part, unless it be very much inclined; the rain will filter downwards where it falls, and fertilize the surface equally.

Collect the earth of ditches and headlands, for mixing with fermenting manure, or with quick-lime, or sea-sand and sea-weed. In the vicinity of the sea-coast, the farmer looks for some of the precious treasures of the ocean as the chief sources of his manure. A bed of sand or mould should be collected to receive the juices of "the fat sea-weed," when storms wrench it from its natural bed, and drive it on shore for our benefit. Every thing that can be converted into manure should be industriously collected, and the short day hours of this month, when the earth is almost at rest, should be unceasingly employed in such field labours as the weather may permit to be executed. The trimming and planting, or cutting down of old straggling hedges, and fagotting, will be among the out-of-door labours; and thrashing, winnowing, chaff-cutting, and the repairing of implements, will give full employment within doors. The farmer or cottager who has grown flax for domestic use will find some work in preparing it for the hackle; and after it has been hackled, some of the females of his family will find amusement and occupation in spinning it for linen, when they have nothing better to do. The bruising of furze for horses and cattle will be found highly beneficial where economy of hay and straw is important. Milch cows thrive well on it, and it renders horses sleek; but being of a relaxing nature, oats or beans should be given alternately with a feed of furze to them.

There may be occasional employment also found in sorting potatos among which unsound ones are intermixed. By cutting off the rotten parts, and *grating* the remainder, after washing them perfectly, a good deal of starch may be obtained. The grated matter should lie in water, two or three times renewed (after the refuse has been strained off) and then dried in the sun or before the fire. It becomes as white as snow, and may be used for any of the purposes for which tapioca or arrow-root is useful, or for confectionary, or as common starch for linen, &c.

Kitchen Garden.—There should not now be left any bare part of the garden undug or untrenched, if trenching be necessary; and this will be useful where deep-rooting vegetables had been. By ridging up the squares sharply, no water lodges on them, and the action of frost will pulverize every clod, however large and tenacious. Manures, if yet unapplied to the ground intended for carrots and parsnips next spring, should be dug in without delay. Advantage should be taken of every fine day to complete all the winter preparations of the soil, and to prepare composts, and collect manure. Prepare stakes and matting for protecting early crops. Earth up celery for the last time as high as it can be done without injuring the crowns. It is to be recollected that carrots, parsnips, and turnips keep better in dry light soil, when the weather is open, than out of the ground. The time of storing them, then, must be regulated by the climate of the garden. There is no safer mode of preserving carrots, parsnips, and turnips, than that of packing them upright, without crowns or roots, when they are so dry as to be in no danger of heating, on a plot of the garden three or four feet square, or on a circular space of small diameter. By piling the roots carefully in the form of a sharp ridge or cone, and covering them with straw or ferns, they will be perfectly secure from injury by the weather. Cabbages may be kept a long time by being hung from the rafters of a room by the heel. Carrots, parsnips, turnips, and mangol-wurzel, intended for seed, should be kept in sand, and have their leaves trimmed a little above the crown; the roots should be left unpruned. Onions to be planted for seed in spring, should not be kept in a kitchen, but in a cooler place. Plant potato onions in drills, in well-manured land.

Fruit Garden.—Mulch trees that have been removed. Dig the ground about gooseberry and currant trees in squares and borders. Plant fruit trees where they are wanted, if the weather be open, in ground properly prepared for them. The routine of work prescribed for the last month will in most respects be necessary in this. The state of the weather and the occupations or the leisure of the gardener will necessarily cause variations as to the periods of executing operations which are safely allowed to extend over two months. Pruning is one of these operations, and may proceed according to convenience.

Flower Garden.—Collect leaves of all sorts; they are a precious and economical material for composts, into which they are to be introduced more or less abundantly, according to the nature of the plants for which they are designed: the proportions will be best regulated by following the recipes given in approved books on the culture of flowers. For ordinary border flowers, it matters little in what quantities they are blended with dung and sand. Leaves also answer for mulching delicate plants; a little soil should be laid over them. The boughs of the spruce fir and yew-trees are recommended as good protectors of carnations, picotees, &c. During frost auriculas should be in the house or frame, but air should be always admitted to them and other plants so protected, except in frost.

VARIETIES.

How to Cook a Husband.—As Mrs. Glass said of the hare, you must first catch him. Having done so, the mode of cooking him, so as to make a good dish of him, is as follows:—Many good husbands are spoiled in the cooking; some women go about as if their husbands were bladders, and blow them up; others keep them constantly in hot water; whilst others freeze them by conjugal coldness; some smother them in hatred, contention, and variance; and some keep them in pickle all their lives. These women always serve them up with tongue sauce. Now, it cannot be supposed that husbands will be tender and good if managed in this way. But they are, on the contrary, very delicious when managed as follows;—Get a large jar, called the jar of carefulness (which all good wives have on hand), place your husband in it, and set him near the fire of conjugal love; let the fire be pretty hot, but especially let it be clear; above all, let the heat be constant: cover him over with affection, kindness, and subjection; garnish with modest becoming familiarity and a spice of pleasantry; and if you add kisses and other confectionaries, let them be accompanied with a sufficient portion of secrecy, mixed with prudence and good sense. We should advise all good wives to try this recipe, and realise how admirable a dish a husband is when properly cooked.

Michael Lyons of Manchester, who a short time since produced a pair of trousers without a seam, has just completed, on a machine of his own invention, a coat of blue worsted.

Half a grain of the tartrate of antimony, with two ounces of water, a drachm of tincture of opium, and an equal quantity of nitrous ether, or colchicum, are said to be an effectual cure for *delirium tremens*—allaying the excitement of the brain, and promoting the healthy action of the skin and kidneys.

Be reserved, says William Penn, but not sour; grave, but not formal; bold, but not rash; humble, but not servile; patient, but not insensible; constant, but not obstinate; cheerful, but not light; rather be sweet tempered than familiar; familiar, rather than intimate; and intimate with very few, and upon good grounds.

Curious Epitaph.—The following curious inscription appears in the churchyard, Pewsey, Dorsetshire:—

Here lies the body of Lady O'Looney,
Great niece of Burke, commonly called the Sublime.
She was bland, passionate, and deeply religious.
Also, she painted in water colours,
And sent several pictures to the Exhibition.
She was first cousin to Lady Jones;
And of such is the Kingdom of Heaven.

Characters of the English, Irish, and Scotch.—Looking at the population of the three kingdoms it may easily be perceived that there is a considerable difference amongst them with respect to temperament. The Irish are gay, ardent; the Scotch are comparatively cool, steady, and cautious; the English are, perhaps, a fair average between the two. I remember it was not inelegantly observed by a friend of mine, that an Englishman thinks and speaks; a Scotchman thinks twice before he speaks; and an Irishman speaks before he thinks. A lady present added, 'A Scotchman thinks with his head: an Irishman with his heart.' This illusion to impulse operating more rapidly than deliberation, is akin to Miss Edgeworth's remark, that an Irishman may err with his head, never with his heart; the truth, however, being that he 'obeys' his heart, not always waiting for the dictates of his head. Some years ago there was a caricature, very graphically pourtraying these grades of difference in the ardour of the three nations.

An Englishman, an Irishman, and a Scotchman were represented as looking through a confectioner's window at a beautiful young woman serving in the shop. 'Oh!' exclaims Mr. Patrick, 'do let us be after spending a half a crown with the dear crayture, that we may look at her convaniently, and have a bit of chat with her.' 'You extravagant dog!' says Mr. George, 'I'm sure one half the money will do quite as well. But let us go in by all means; she's a charming girl.' 'Ah! wait a wee!' interposed Mr. Andrew; 'dinna ye ken it'll serve our purpose equally well just to ask the bonnie lassie to gie us twa sixpences for a shilling, and enquire where's Mr. Toompson's hoose, and sic like? We're no hungry, and may as well save the siller.'—*Smith's Irish Diamonds.*

The Corner.

Support in Danger.—A military officer being at sea in a storm, his lady, who was waiting near him, and filled with alarm for the safety of the vessel, was so surprised at his composure and serenity that she cried out, 'My dear, are you not afraid? How is it possible you can be so calm in such a storm?' He rose from a chair lashed to the deck, and, supporting himself by a pillar of the bedplace, he drew his sword, and pointing it to the breast of his wife, he exclaimed, 'Are you not afraid?' She instantly replied, 'No, certainly not.' 'Why?' said the officer. 'Because,' rejoined the lady, 'I know the sword is in the hand of my husband, and he loves me too well to hurt me.' 'Then,' said he, 'remember, I know in whom I have believed, and that He holds the winds in his fist, and the waters in the hollow of His hand.'